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AMERICA'S OLDEST MAGAZINE FOR EDUCATORS

THE classroom shown on the cover and presented more fully above is in the school on wheels, operated by the Canadian National Railway for the Ontario Department of Education. The classroom occupies one end of a railway car and the other contains the living quarters of the teacher, Mr. Fred Sloman and Mrs. Sloman. Notice the snow through the window in the door. It is so cold that the childrens' dogs have been brought in and are attending class too.

The Northern lines of the Canadian National Railway pass through a sparsely settled region and the school on wheels brings education to children living where there are no established schools. It moves from town to town at specified times. The photo, supplied through the courtesy of the Canadian National Railway System, was taken at Anstice, Ontario.

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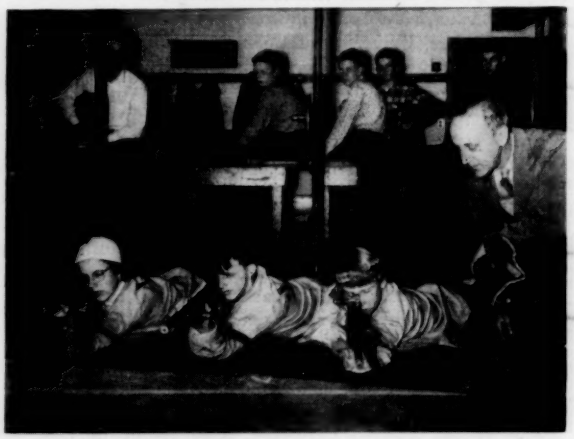
NEW HAMPSHIRE PIONEERS FIREARMS SAFETY EDUCATION IN ITS SCHOOLS

Jack F. George
Director of Physical Education, State Department of Education, Concord, N. H.

New Hampshire's famous fall foliage is accompanied by an annual traditional custom – the sport of hunting. Citizens of the Granite State have always ventured forth in quest of game. Their efforts are usually rewarded by a varied game bag. Unfortunately, the kill has always included HUMANS. The yearly casualty report has become a vital concern of the state. Even though New Hampshire's accident rate is comparatively low, the state has always contributed to the nation's hunting accident statistics.

Last spring, the legislature recognized the need for gun safety education and encouraged school districts to allocate funds for this purpose through appropriate legislation. It seems logical that knowledge and respect for firearms, proper gun handling and safe hunting practices can be taught through firearms education.



In order to implement the new legislation, the State Department of Education has recently published a Firearms Safety Education Guide. Technical assistance for the project was provided by the State Fish and Game Department. Mr. John Dodge, Education Officer of this department, and the author worked cooperatively to complete the nation's first program of this type. The State Police has endorsed the project and made its staff available for consultant service. Many individuals including state police officers, conservation officers, and representatives from arms and ammunition concerns assisted in the months of effort in establishing the state's plan. Olin Industries, a private enterprise, has been especially helpful in completing the published guide.

Firearms instruction is an integral part of the outdoor education program in New Hampshire. The purpose of the gun safety project is twofold:

1. To provide necessary knowledge and training for proper conduct in the hunting field and correct handling of firearms.
2. To provide information for the non-hunter who loves the outdoors and may become the victim of the hunter. The non-hunter has a responsibility for his own safety by wearing appropriate color of clothing and demonstrating proper actions in the out-of-doors.

In addition to these two basic concepts, other areas of study include causes of hunting accidents, sportsman-landowner relations, parents' responsibility and hunting laws for conservation of game as well as human life.

Approval of Program

The importance of the program has been emphasized by the following statement of Governor Hugh Gregg. "Every New Hampshire parent should become familiar with the objectives of the Firearms Safety Education Program." Dr. Hilton C. Buley, Commissioner of Education of New Hampshire, commented as follows, "This bulletin on Firearms Safety Education has been prepared in response to a growing desire on the part of thoughtful parents and sportsmen for public and private schools to assume a more positive role in the development of the knowledge, the skills, and the attitudes necessary for the hunter and non-hunter to enjoy the beautiful New Hampshire out-of-doors in safety."

Mr. Ralph G. Carpenter, 2nd, Director of the Fish and Game Department, in his letter of endorsement stated, "It is our belief that education is the one means at our command by which to cut down hunting accidents and others which occur through careless handling of firearms. We enthusiastically support this effort on the part of our State Department of Education to make Firearm Safety Education a genuine part of the program of their schools. Members of our department will give the schools all the help they can in conducting the program."

Colonel Ralph W. Caswell, Superintendent of State Police, expressed his approval of the program by saying, "We feel that firearms training is deserving of support from this department and shall consider it a privilege to lend aid to such a program."

During 1953 more than fifteen hundred Americans lost their lives or were seriously injured by gun accidents due to greed, carelessness, or ignorance. Almost a third of these were caused by teen-age boys and girls. Reliable statistics as released by the National Rifle Association prove that one effective means of reducing this accident rate is education. The right to bear arms is a cherished American tradition. It is a part of youth's heritage which prohibition will never stifle; hence realistic educators recognize the logical recourse is a program of education.

Who causes gun accidents? These people usually fall into four categories: the careless, the untrained, the overanxious, and the improperly clothed person. As a matter of fact, the majority of the firearms accidents destined to happen this year will not occur in the actual process of hunting game!

1. A national survey of other firearms safety programs was conducted. This included an analysis of teaching methods, and materials already in use and their adaptation to our own situation.
2. An inventory of existing programs in New Hampshire schools was made. Several of our own union districts have realized the need for such a program and have been teaching certain phases of this project for several years.
3. Preparation of a program of action. This resulted in the State Education Department's publication "Firearms Safety Education."
4. The selection and training of qualified instructors. Competent leadership is essential to the success of the program. School administrators are requested to appoint a staff member to supervise the program.
5. Standardization and implementation of the project: In order to interpret the objectives of the program and assure standardized teaching procedures and techniques in the state's program, the following phases of planning have been completed, or are in the process of completion:

Pupils at Penacook High School are being instructed in how hunters should hand a loaded gun over a stone wall without endangering themselves or others. This was during a Firearms Safety Education assembly held at the school on the eve of deer hunting season and sponsored by the school's outing club.

Our state law makes it mandatory for any person under sixteen years of age, while hunting, to be accompanied by a licensee twenty-one years of age or over. However, since our schools supervise activities of boys and girls throughout their most active hours each week, they must share with their parents the responsibility for the safety of themselves and others. Nevertheless, the major burden rests squarely with the parents.

New Hampshire's approach to this problem can be summarized in the following steps:

a) An orientation session sponsored for state police and conservation officers was conducted in which the entire program was presented and discussed.

b) Methods of presenting assembly or "kick-off" programs in schools were discussed with state police and conservation officers. Actual materials and suggested techniques were outlined.

c) A concentrated three-day workshop for approximately thirty-five state police and conservation officers has been scheduled for the purpose of establishing competency of instruction in this carefully selected group. These men will serve as consultants in the local schools.

Regional teams of these consultants will be available to schools for the purpose of qualifying local supervisors of the program. National Rifle Association standards will be observed.

6. Evaluation.
In the spring of the present school year, teachers and consultants who have participated in the program will attend a workshop to discuss "Where Do We Go From Here?" What has been done will be evaluated and revised for the following year's activities.

7. Available materials.
Basic instructional materials are composed of two kits: Kit No. 1—This was sent to all school administrators, physical education and recreational personnel in the state. The kit contained a questionnaire-survey for each school. The purpose of this survey was to ascertain past and present firearms programs, and need for such a program. In addition, this kit contained, the published guide, and the National Rifle Association's two basic teaching guides — The Hunter Safety Guide and the Instructor's Guide. Kit No. 2 — This is a resource packet of sixteen publications and reprints for schools that plan to incorporate the project.

8. Audio-visual aids.
Fourteen films are available for school use. Many of these may be obtained from the New Hampshire Fish and Game Department.

In summary, our primary purpose is to present a simple and workable plan of teaching procedures for instruction in Firearms Safety Education. Every effort has been made to utilize appropriate personnel and technical know-how of gun safety. In the first fall of operation, more than 50% of our secondary schools are undertaking some phase of the project.

This program has been made possible through the cooperation of the State Departments of Education, Fish and Game, Police, and the firearms industry. It is our hope that this effort will help New Hampshire become the safest state in which to live, hunt, and enjoy the out-of-doors.

(Photographs Courtesy of New Hampshire Fish & Game Dept.)

Instructor James Dee shows two young Dover High School students how to pass their guns from one to another while both cross barbed wire fence safely.

PUT AWAY THOSE WOODEN SHOES!

John A. Wallace

The author has conducted summer travel courses for students and teachers for the past six years.

Somewhere in the United States today – perhaps in my town, perhaps in yours, but inevitably somewhere – an elementary school group is studying life in Holland. The 30 eager boys and girls in the classroom are "learning about how our neighbors all over the world are living." It sounds good for the youngsters. It looks good on the course of study. And above all, it seems to be such a *worthwhile* thing for children to be studying.

Can you picture the scene? Have you been in that scene recently? It goes about like this. Ten year old Howard is the center of interest. In his hands are a pair of wooden shoes, clumsily carved from a large block, and

obviously ungainly even to demonstrate. Howard's father served in the 84th Division in World War II and once managed to spend three days furlough time in Amsterdam. While there he bought a pair of wooden shoes. It would be a nice souvenir to take home to the baby, he reasoned. His canny investment is today paying off, and young Howard is gaining a good deal of status in the eyes of both teacher and classmates.

"In Holland They Wear. . . ."

Let's listen to Howard. "This pair of wooden shoes is one my father bought when he was in Amsterdam. It's like what the Dutch people wear. Wooden shoes are cheap and don't have to be polished. The Dutch people also wear funny little white hats, and other clothes which look pretty but kind of funny. In the winter they skate on the canals. They also have a lot of windmills on the canals. That is what Holland is like."

So it is that in too many of our school systems our young people learn about the world. Rarely do we give the Dutch a chance to describe themselves. Rarely do we even ask such a question as how one foot could hold both a wooden shoe and an ice skate. It's so picturesque to think of those colorful little Dutch boys and girls. In how many of our social studies classes do we ever point out that there are only a few more windmills in Holland than there are wooden covered bridges in the United States, and that their degree of practicality in the 20th century is about the same?

And it isn't just the Dutch who suffer. Think of the poor Swiss who are depicted in the average American classroom as individuals with a peasant skirt or leather pants, a large cheese under one arm, a cowbell under the other and a yodel on the lips. Or the Italians – why *everybody* knows that every Italian child can row a gondola. And those poor Welsh coal-miners, marching home from work singing "How Green Was My Valley"!

Stereotypes and Generalizations

Rare is the school today which does not in some part of its curriculum lay stress on the "brotherhood of man" theme. Few are the teachers who do not readily accept the obligation to help young people to come to an awareness of the interdependence of nations and races. This article merely seeks to ask the question, are we accomplishing it with wooden shoes?

Ask the students in your class to take a brief associative test with you. Give them a piece of paper and then instruct them to write the first words which occur to them when you say the name "Holland." Count the number of responses which mention windmills, wooden shoes, skating on the canals, small boys with valiant fingers in leaky dikes, etc. Is this international understanding? Will this make our young people, as adults, sympathetic

to the problems and points of view of modern Holland? Well, would you like the Dutchman to think of America as a melange of covered bridges, village smithys, Indian war bonnets, and small boys throwing silver dollars across rivers in Virginia?

Take another step. Make another local analysis. Find out the country of original emigration for the students in your classes. Most of us had ancestors who fled Europe for one valid reason or another. Find out how many generations have since elapsed, and how many stereotypes are still based upon the impressions of the old country given by a grandparent or a great-grandparent. Is that helping to build the kind of understanding that may one day find us sharing a common ballot box with our distant cousins?

Developing Real Understanding

There are other ways. Teachers, schools, and classrooms here and there in all corners of the land are showing the route. They are making the learning situation vivid on the basis of people speaking to people. They are building understanding on the basis of sharing – sharing thoughts, ideals, experiences, dreams. Some of these teachers are fortunate enough to be able to visit the areas about which they teach, others make the visit vicariously.

The opportunity to travel to foreign lands, or distant parts of our own is one which certainly should enrich the classroom. It should, but too often it does not. The tourist-teacher is too apt to visit the quaint, isolated little "costume towns." She's so sorely tempted to buy a pair of wooden shoes. She saw that tremendous factory at Eindhoven where television sets are made, but doesn't mention it to her students because it's so nice to be able to talk about the unusual things in Europe. Anyway, what's so unusual about a television-set factory? Mere visit to a foreign land does not insure contemporary contacts.

Let her visit a school classroom in a foreign land. Perhaps she can borrow or buy a copy of the kinds of elementary readers which people of other nations are using. Her own children, seeing such a book, understanding at least its pictures and the repetitive use of many word symbols, can see that for a school child in another land, life's pretty much the same as for himself. People can speak to people through textbooks every day of the week.

Child can speak to child, youth to youth, dream to dream in letters as well. Pen-pals can become pals indeed. Dozens of times in the past eight years of summer trips to Europe the author has seen college students make long and tedious journeys through foreign lands in order to visit a pen-pal, visits which produce the kinds of person-to-person life situations on which convictions are soundly based.

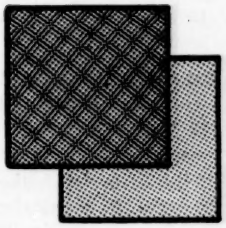
Removing the Cause of Friction

The daily press, radio, and other communication media these days are full of news and misunderstanding. "Briton Accuses U. S. of War Threats," "Senator Claims Allies Worthless," "French Resent U. S. Pressure," "Dulles Irks Nehru on Red China." Yet when the subjects of these headlines sit down around a table, blow off a little steam, exchange their views in frankness, they usually emerge with the statement that, as friends, they now better understand one another's viewpoint.

Can the classroom be expanded to encompass the world? Can the teacher who has traveled over any small part of that world establish enough living relations with it that she or he can broaden the grasp of the children in school? Can the one who studies about other areas insure that others, younger and more impressionable, will learn not of the area quaintness but rather of the human race? If my child wants a new bicycle and your child wants a new bicycle, they have something in common, a shared problem that brings them closer together. Even if my child is a Swede, a Dane, a Swiss, a Mexican, a Filipino, your child will feel closer to him if he knows that he, too, wants the same kind of a new bicycle. They'll feel even closer when they realize that they're each getting the same kind of excuses from their parents.

Tens of thousands of American communities offer ample evidence of the personal solubility of the problems of internationalism. The current assimilation of refugees from Europe into the warm circle of American life is further evidence. Let people speak to people and they'll speak of common problems, shared experiences. Let these people speak up in the schools, draw upon them for interpretation of the lands they have recently left, and our attempts to help children understand the world's problems may have greater chances for success.

Above all, to return to the essential thesis of this article, let's not aggravate differences by exclusively emphasizing them. Understanding must be based on current facts, not past myths. Leave the windmill and the covered bridge to the historian. Bring the living present into the classroom. Put away those wooden shoes!



WHY PHYSICAL EDUCATION?

Frances Wayman Hogan

Assistant Director of Physical Education,
Fort Worth Public Schools

"Why teach my child to play?" say the parents. "They want to do nothing else! I fail to see why they have to be taught."

"Why not special teachers of physical education in the elementary schools?" say the classroom teachers. "We are not trained to teach and cannot demonstrate the basic skills. And we have no off period. If there were a special teacher of physical education in each building we would have an off period while our pupils were being instructed by an expert."

"What is the difference between recreation and physical education? Aren't they one and the same?" college graduates ask.

Since these questions keep coming to my desk, I would like to attempt to answer them. To the parent who asks, "Why teach my child to play?" I would like to say, your child wants to play – wants to play more than anything else in the world, but does he know how to play, and does he know what to play? The obvious answer is "no." The school's job is to teach him the how and the what, so that he will enjoy playing activities suited to his age and development in the safest possible manner. And to the classroom teacher who says, "Why do we not have physical education teachers in each school?" we think that the self-contained classroom where the teacher teaches all the areas is the best for the small child. Not that she can be a specialist in any one area, she is a specialist in child growth and development. The elementary school is primarily a sampling ground, where a well-balanced program is offered to all. Therefore, specialization at too young an age is inadvisable and, we think, undesirable. Not only do you need to see your children at play, but you also need to play occasionally, certainly to be out in the sunshine and fresh air with them. You are the only one who knows when they need to play and when they will benefit most. You are the only one who can correlate the physical education activities with the classroom activities. To the college student who says, "What is the difference between recreation and physical education?" I would like to say that good recreation will follow, *only follow*, good physical education. Physical education is education of the physical or the teaching of the physical skills. Recreation is a voluntary choice of participation in those skills in which we find joy. And, of course, we find joy in the things we do well, and we choose to do those things we do well. And so the school tries to teach the skills hoping that each child will have sufficient success to the end that he will choose worthwhile and wholesome recreation activities when he has time on his hands, when he has free time.

Games Mean Fun

Many lay people and some physical educators still believe that the end product in teaching a game is the game itself. Nothing could be farther from the truth. Although to know and play well many games is important, to the child having fun is the chief objective. What does he mean by having fun? First, he means that he is an accepted member of the group and has as much chance to participate as the other members. Many is the time that Johnny assisted in forming and maintaining a good circle, watched everyone else have a turn, and just as his turn came around a not too discerning teacher said, "It is time to stop playing and go inside," or a mechanical bell determined the end of the play period. Just what effect does this have on Johnny? How does he feel toward the game, the teacher, his playmates? Does this experience have an effect on his attitude and therefore on his behavior when he returns to the classroom and engages in other activities? We believe it does and we should like to eliminate forever the possibility of making Johnny unhappy in a game. We do not mean that he must not learn to give and take, win and lose, or applaud a good play by the other fellow. We mean that standards of fairness and consistency should be set up by cooperative planning of teacher and pupils and that these standards should be maintained by constant evaluation by teacher and pupils.

There is more to a game than the game itself, yes, the skills themselves, the muscular activity itself. It is the mental and emotional exhilaration which comes when one is lost in an activity with other boys and girls. By "lost" we mean forgets himself completely in the realization that he will have his turn; he will not be embarrassed by not being chosen; he will not be ridiculed if his performance is not as good as some of the others. He will have fun. A superior teacher, whether a classroom teacher or a specialist, who realizes the value of play in each child's day and his social needs in his group, will capitalize on the physical education program to do those things for each boy and girl which are so necessary to their total well being. If we accept this, then we must admit that the mental, emotional, and social aspects of a game are

every bit as important as the physical aspects – and perhaps even more so.

Large Group Games

The physical education program should be broad and varied, of course. It should include many games of different types so that all the basic skills may be introduced and developed as far as possible. Specialization in one activity, or even a few, should not be encouraged at too early an age. At the beginning of each year, all grades should start with large group games and continue as long as necessary to establish those social values inherent in large group games and necessary to group success. Sometimes this takes a week, sometimes more. It depends on the age of the children. For the younger group we suggest staying with large group games longer. By large group games we mean those games which are played with the entire classroom group whether it be twenty, thirty, or forty. These social values as we see them are:

1. Building and maintaining a good circle. Forming a good circle is difficult for most children, large as well as small, therefore a simple procedure should be taught. We like for the group to go to the playground or gymnasium in couples in an informal manner, taking a partner, either a boy or a girl, on reaching the classroom door. On reaching the play area, the teacher commends the leaders on careful leading of the couples and the lines on their ability to follow. Now she tells them to face their partners and catch hands down the two long lines. She walks down the center assisting if necessary. When she gets to the last couple, she suggests they hold inside hands. Now she walks back down the center and asks the first couple to hold inside hands. Next she suggests they all back up slowly. Just before they reach the stretching stage she says, "Stop, drop hands! Now see what a nice round circle we have made, and it was so quick and easy to do."
2. Getting acquainted with each other. How can we have fun unless we know the names of the other members of the group? We like to use a number of name-calling games at the beginning of each year in each grade, because we realize how satisfying it is to be called by our own given name.
3. Belonging to the group (being accepted by the group and accepting the group). If we are happy and satisfied in a given group we are able to do better work and we are also able to play better.
4. Being responsible for the success or failure of each activity, admitting and knowing the cause of either. Here is where evaluation is so necessary. The children should be able to tell wherein they failed and why, or wherein they succeeded and why.
5. Realizing and being happy about a game well played. Again the evaluation period following an activity is most essential.
6. Learning to choose a different person each time there is a choice. We advocate the choice of a different friend each time a child has a choice, so that eventually he will have chosen or played with each child in his room.
7. Learning to choose a person of the opposite sex. If we do not realize the value of this seventh item, we have not taught small children, because if we let boys choose boys all the time, then the girls are disgruntled because they are not playing. Yet, the next day the girls will do the exact thing they were disgruntled about the day before.
8. Being responsible for fun for all (all have one turn before anyone has two). The pupils readily agree to this rule, especially when they have assisted in its making.
9. Respecting the decisions of the leader (whether it be a teacher or pupil). We claim in physical education to develop leadership, but do we do it? If each child has had a chance to lead, he appreciates and respects the duties and obligations of a good leader.
10. Care and use of equipment. All pupils before being allowed to use equipment should have careful instructions in how to use it, how to care for it, and how to protect it. Protection of property is a basic learning in all areas of instruction.

Small Group Games

When the class has been solidified fairly well as a happy, working-playing unit, it is time to begin to introduce other types of activities, such as small group games. We realize that we must help them with games they can play under their own leadership either at the recreation period at school or at free time at home. The children know that the teacher of necessity is the leader in the large group games, and she sets the pattern. They, of course, may have some simple duties in a large group game, but the forming of a circle, lines, or whatever is needed is too difficult for a boy or girl whose leadership skills are developing slowly. In small group activities everyone has more opportunities to participate, but the greatest values as we see them are the development of wise leadership and intelligent followship in *all* the children. Also, these activities are simple enough to be organized and played at home with the neighborhood friends. We like to classify games which seem to be played best by two to ten or twelve children under this heading. Some excellent examples are Hop Scotch, O'Leary, Pavement Ball, Tennis, and Paddle Tennis. In small group games one leader serves for only one play period until all have served. More important to our mind than expert leadership in any one pupil is the growth in leadership ability in all the pupils. Constant evaluation of leadership by the leader himself, with the teacher and class participating, can build in the minds and actions of the boys and girls the qualities of good leadership and followship so necessary to living in a democratic society.

Rhythmic activities are basic to all movement. The balance, poise, and coordination developed are enhanced by the sheer joy of participation. No one wins or loses, no records are broken, everyone responds according to his or her own ability. No program is complete without due recognition of the values of a complete rhythmic program which includes fundamental rhythms, tap, modern, folk, and country dancing. Nowhere in the physical education program is there such a rich opportunity for correlation with the social studies units than in the use of folk dances from other lands. They should assist in the development of a better understanding of other people and how they live. Also they teach us that other people like to play as much as we do. We like to challenge a group

to learn, love, and appreciate a dance created by others and encourage them to create one for themselves. If they are unable, at least, they should strive to execute a dance borrowed from another country in as authentic a style as possible. The need for costuming fades as dances are done with the style and simplicity of the folk to whom they belong.

skills to be developed. We are not unmindful of the importance of these, but feel that they have been adequately taken care of in much of the literature in the field. It is the social skills which make for better mental and emotional adjustment that have been stressed here. They must be understood and receive more emphasis than they have received in the past.

Self-testing activities, another valuable type of activity, are educationally sound in that they permit each individual to progress at his own rate. He may proceed as fast as he chooses. No mass education here, but plenty of opportunities to succeed. Self-rating charts may be kept in a handy place where each one may see his progress in the different activities. Each boy or girl enjoys charting progress and improvement. And what better public relations between home and school can there be than for the parents to see exactly what Jimmie or Mary did last month and the improvement he or she has made this month? Achievement here is not in relation to the others in the group but in relation to each child's own past record.

The program is not complete without modified team games. Here the pupils learn cooperation and loyalty to their own team, courtesy and sportsmanship to the opponent, and respect for officials and their decisions. In team games the individual sacrifices his personal desires for the good of the team. Each child should have an opportunity to officiate in order that he may understand the problems and difficulties. Every child should be on a team and feel that he is a valuable asset to his team. However, in the elementary school much emphasis must be placed on games of low organization. Lead up games or modified games are fun here, today, this week, rather than at some far distant future. We must be careful not to expect children to play a game that is beyond the ability of their age group. Play the game that is leveled at their age and experience, and they will not only be able to understand and appreciate the game, but will also be preparing for the more difficult games later on.

In this program, briefly described above, with its balance in such activities as large group games, small group games, rhythmic activities, self-testing activities, and team games, we have said nothing about the physical

In order to assure a balanced program, a plan of some kind should be made in advance and followed to the best of our ability. This does not mean that the plan is rigid and inflexible. Certainly several different conditions would change even the b e s t of plans. When working with individuals we can never foresee the many things that might come up which would make it desirable to change our plans. But a plan must be made or we never know when we have arrived or if we have arrived.

To the parent who asked the first question, "Why teach my child to play?" may I ask what do you want most for your child? What are his most fundamental needs? Can you honestly say that what you want most for your child coincides with the things he needs most? Then can you answer "yes" to this next question? Are you doing all you can to accomplish these ends? It is time parents and educators took stock of the activities crowding each day and evaluated them in terms of real values for everyday living. We know that a child's life work is play. He needs to play in order to grow. He needs to play in order to make friends. He needs to play in order to smile and have fun.

And to the classroom teacher, who said, "Why not a special physical education teacher who knows physical education?" Yes, a special teacher does know physical education but she does not know each individual child as well as you do and she is more subject-matter conscious than pupil-needs conscious. It is a joy to see your children at play. Your job is indeed a lucky one. Some of the best teachers have said, "I can do a better job in the classroom if I teach my children physical education, because there I see them as they really are and I come to know them better."

(Continued on page 140)

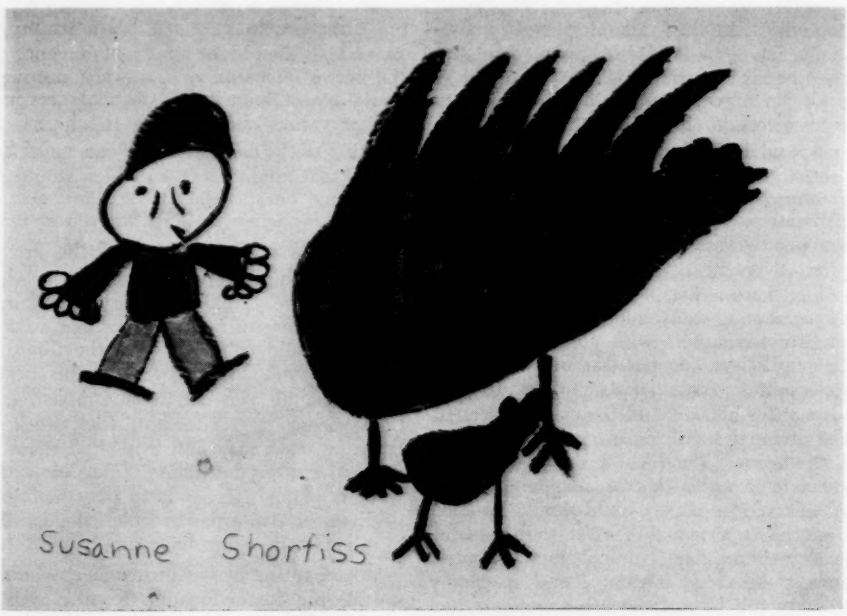
ART IN ELEMENTARY EDUCATION

Ruth R. Herring

Art Supervisor, Framingham State Teachers College
Framingham, Mass.

Today, in view of the trend toward the "self-contained" classroom, there is a need for working more closely with the art specialist in elementary education to keep the ground that has been gained. In most states there are laws which state that art must be taught in the schools. This implies that there must be teachers and supervisors who are sufficiently trained to do this. There will always be a need for the supervisor as a guide and as a specialist who brings the results of local, national and international art gatherings to the classroom teacher; who keeps her informed of the best and newest books and magazines; who introduces her to new materials and experiences. But the classroom teacher needs to know enough and to understand enough to use the guidance. With the teacher shortage and constantly changing school staffs the art supervisor is often confronted with teachers who have had little or no art education. Teacher training courses are more adapted to keeping trained teachers up-to-date and cannot take the place of college courses. Much more should be done at the teacher college level and university level to supply courses to meet this need.

Not only should classroom teachers have adequate art training, but also the administrators, the superintendents, principals, and directors of elementary education with whom and through whom the art educator has to work. To assume that we can have self-contained classrooms without master teachers who know the best approach from sufficient experience in every field, as well as directors of education with like experience, is unrealistic to say the least. The creative art credo that all have the ability and right to enjoy the art experience does not mean that anyone can administer, supervise, or evaluate an art program without knowing the field from the inside. Scholars may write books on aesthetics yet lack the practical experience of art and the know-how of teaching it.



Direct expression of felt experience. Evidently the child is o nly looking at the chickens, not hearing, since ears are not in evidence on the boy. (Grade I)

The success of creating teaching in art has influenced other subject matter fields to take over some phases of it without understanding the nature of creative art. There is no subsitute for experience. Art is not a handmaiden for other subjects in the school. Rather does it use all and contribute to all. All subjects in the curriculum should work together to enrich each other and should use the methods advocated by each where they overlap. Since the creative art idea has liberated thinking in general, many subjects seek to be identified with it; for instance, the old standard of evaluation, i. e., how near the representation comes to the thing represented – the physical likeness – has been superseded by how closely the expression is a reflection of the spirit and meaning of the idea of the artist.

As with the mature artist so with the child-artist, his concept governs the form of his expression. No good is gained by the teacher attempting to "correct" the child's creation. Instead, she must enrich the child's experience and environment from which he gets his concepts. Then,

A vicarious experience. Notice the perfect balance of the darks. (Grade 3)

language arts and even creative mathematics! Art cannot be taken over by another subject. It includes all subjects yet has its own identity. It cannot be evaluated by factual, academic standards. Its function in the school is to balance the curriculum diet of the child. It is necessary to protect art in the schools with methods that correspond to its nature. A departure from such methods shows no understanding of art as an inspirational, nonfactual area.

Art and Nature

In spite of our best efforts natural science is being taught in some places in the name of art. That is, copying nature's forms (perhaps, second-hand) instead of making a personal statement about them. Many recognize only nature in art, not knowing the language of color, line, form, etc., and not being able to experience them directly to get the spiritual meaning from them, either when used alone, as in abstract art, or to interpret nature's forms. The statement here that art and nature have a common source and are parallel to each other, rather than art being tributary to nature may help to clear up this point. Beauty is the common denominator. Thus, art has the privilege of creating things that are in themselves a source of the art experience as well as using forms from nature. The she must accept the crude beginnings that have, nevertheless, the spark of life, and use them as a means of knowing and guiding him in his journey toward self-knowledge. The teacher will learn to appreciate the directness, innocence, and joy of the child artist and will give him many opportunities to work with a variety of materials so that he may enjoy art at his own level of ability. She knows that art is a developmental activity necessary to the emotional, spiritual, and intellectual balance of the child.

Teachers will begin to see that in a child's first painting, for instance, the placement and amounts of color are more important than the forms. In the primary grades the child makes shapes by outlining and filling in the shape, making the strokes go the way the shape goes, when crayon is used. When he uses paint, he naturally lays the strokes together to build up the forms. The paint, being a mass medium, lends itself to this way of working, even suggests it. Easel work gives invaluable experience in helping the child to see his own concepts of himself and his world. As he keeps on painting freely, year after year, using large motions and large brush and paper, he clarifies and develops his ideas from the early symbolic, direct forms to forms that embody more observation. This is but one example from the many media with which he works.

We need to protect the child's natural art expression from comparisons with adult standards. We need to set

up standards for the child that are in harmony with *all* that we know about him at any given age. We know that a child acts with completeness. The whole child responds to and expresses life. Therefore, provided that he is not starved by the negative treatment of "letting him do as he pleases" or "distorted" by attempting to engraft upon him ways that are not his by growth, whatever he does in this normal condition is perfect for his age, or, in other words, complete.

It is interesting to observe that in the case of a tree we do all that we can to bring out its own nature, form, color, etc. through providing the right nourishment and care. We do not force the elm to look like the oak, or to grow in any way that is contrary to its nature. Just so, each child has his own unique, individual nature that needs to be brought out so that he may make his particular contribution to society.

When a child enters school he is already conditioned by the home in his attitude toward art. If he has been allowed to play with color in paints, crayons, paper, and so on, without fear of ridicule, he is well started on his way to tie in with a creative art program in school. If he has been given coloring books to color in and to copy adult forms, it is more difficult for him to develop confidence in himself. He does not learn to be an adult by copying an adult but by being himself and growing into an adult.

Everyone would agree that in order to develop ability in any line of work it is necessary to work at it daily. This is true in art. However, the time schedule for art is once or twice a week in many schools. The aim in the elementary school is to keep the channel of the child's ideas open and keep him using them constructively daily, so that they will not cause tensions and frustrations from lack of use.

Elementary Art Program

In setting up an art program for the elementary school there has to be an organization of art experiences and materials. There are some activities that can be introduced only when there is the maturity level for them or the art readiness, or the muscular control necessary as for carving or linoleum cutting. The program grows with the classroom experiences. There is always something tremendously vital going on with discoveries that lead to other lessons. Children and teachers learn alike. There are some fixed and some flexible activities, some long term and some short term problems. The balance between art and integration with other subjects must be kept. Seasonal subjects have to be kept free from the stereotype. Community tie-ups need to be kept in proportion with the necessary work. In general, the problems in line, color, form, and texture are in a sequence, going from the simple to the complex in many materials, and in two and three dimensions. A transfer pupil in any grade can begin with the first lessons and catch up with the class.

In art, as in arithmetic, the answer is not shown before the child has worked out the problem. In art, unlike arithmetic, the same problem can result in many different answers, all of them equally right so far as the principles or relationships of art are concerned. This is characteristic of a creative art lesson as contrasted with the old-fashioned dictated lessons where all the results were alike and no child could tell his own work unless his name was on it. Unless art is very badly taught it needs little motivation. The materials themselves are a stimulation when kept in good condition and easily available. What the child has experienced of life is the great source. Then, dramatic play, songs, poems, stories, movies, slides, trips, illustrative material, if not overdone and if properly presented have a place.

Choices are given in materials since the idea that the child has dictates the materials and the amounts to be used. The exception would be when a new material is being introduced and all are trying it. The first lessons are manipulatory and exploratory, whether one is six or sixty. In other words, a get-acquainted lesson with the material is necessary before ideas are objectified in it. A minimum of five basic materials for each classroom is requested: paint, clay, colored paper, colored chalk, and crayons. Boxes of scraps of colored paper, odds and ends, wood, etc. are very necessary. Cooperation instead of competition is stressed. Contests in the elementary school are not encouraged since they introduce an element that is contrary to the art spirit. The child would have an ulterior motive that would detract from the art motive. In high school classes perhaps it would not have the same effect but the issue is debatable.

Democratic living is essentially creative living. Through the self-disciplines of creative art, the necessity for continuous planning, making choices and taking the responsibility for them, self-evaluation, a child grows into an adult with a proven way of tackling problems creatively and constructively.

PHYSICAL EDUCATION—HOGAN

(Continued from page 137)

And to the graduate students who ask, "Are physical education and recreation one and the same?" I hope we have said something here that will convince you that out of physical education and only out of physical education can a good recreation program grow. Trouble begins when recreation or freedom of choice comes first. It reminds us of the teacher who said her children were disgruntled because they were told to go to the playground and do what they wanted to do, and they didn't know what they wanted to do! How right she was. How can we give freedom of choice until first we have given children something to choose from. In physical education as in all areas, we, in the public schools, try to teach the basic skills. Out of those skills we hope each child finds areas in which he can succeed to the end that he will continue to play and succeed, play and succeed. Without a broad sampling program in the elementary school he would not have this opportunity. How else would he find himself, not only in physical education but in reading, writing, and arithmetic?

Competition, yes, there is a place for competition, but not inter-school competition. First, every child is entitled to daily instruction in physical education from kindergarten through the twelfth grade. After that has been accomplished he is entitled to a broad intramural program held after school. We think that a well organized intramural program should include such a wealth of sports and games as to attract the majority of pupils to stay and play. If and when there is t i m e and personnel left to do more, and it seems fitting and proper, Play Days involving several schools might be a valuable addition to the program.

HOW DO YOU SUBTRACT?

Gail E. Cosgrove

The author is Supervisor of Elementary Schools in Natick, Massachusetts, and teaches summer school courses at the University of Massachusetts.

Frequently in our instructional work pupils encounter new procedures for performing skills which they have been taught at some previous time. In some instances this practice is designed and planned, while on other occasions it happens purely by chance. The author is seeking to investigate in one area, compound subtraction of whole numbers, and the effect on the computational skill of pupils, when this experience occurs.

For many years the question of the superiority of the Decomposition Method or the Equal Additions Method has been raised. The Decomposition Method is favored in the schools of this country while the Equal Additions Method is preferred in the schools of Great Britain. With each method, either of two thought patterns may be used–the additive or subtractive. According to the D Method, which is favored in the United States, a child's thought pattern when solving the following example would probably be:

Before Changing	*After Changing*
61 = 6 tens + 1 one	$^{5}\not{6}^{1}1$ = 5 tens + 11 ones
−34 = 3 tens + 4 ones	− 34 = 3 tens + 4 ones
	27 = 2 tens + 7 ones

"I can't take 4 ones from 1 so I change one of the 6 tens to ten ones and add it to the 1 one."

"Then I subtract 4 from 11, and write 7 in the one's place. 3 from 5 is 2 and I write 2 in the ten's place."

According to the E A Method a child is taught the mathematical principle that the difference between two numbers is not changed if the same number is added to both terms.

Before Changing	*After Changing*
61 = 6 tens + 1 one	$6^{1}1$ = 6 tens + 11 ones
−34 = 3 tens + 4 ones	− $^{4}\not{3}4$ = 4 tens + 4 ones
	27 = 2 tens + 7 ones

For the above example pupils are to think somewhat as follows:

"I can't take 4 ones from 1 one so I add a ten to the 1 and get 11.

"Now I can subtract the ones: 4 from 11 is 7 and I write 7 in the one's place."

"Since I added a ten to the one's figure in the top number, I must add a ten to the ten's figure in the bottom number, and 3 becomes 4.

"Now I can subtract the tens: 4 from 6 is 2 and I write 2 in the ten's place."

The term "Decomposition" is used properly as the minuend 61 is "decomposed" to 50 + 11. No change is made in the subtrahend 34. The term "Equal Additions" is used properly for the second procedure because a ten is added to both terms of the algorism, as ten ones to the 1 of 61 in the minuend, and as 1 ten to the 3 of 34 in the subtrahend.

For an example which is much more complex and involves changing successive zeros, a child might think somewhat as follows using the D Method:

8 9 9 1	7 from 10
$\not{9}\ \not{0}\ \not{0}\ 0$	6 from 9
	4 from 9
− 3 4 6 7	3 from 8
5 5 3 3	

Using the E A Method to do the same example as above a pupil is not required to remember a series of transformations involving the zero figures. A pupil might think somewhat as follows:

9 0 0 0	7 from 10
4 5 7	7 from 10
$\not{3}\ \not{4}\ \not{6}\ 7$	5 from 10
5 5 3 3	4 from 9

Most research shows that the E A Method is superior in accuracy and speed and probably better for adult usage. Johnson[1] proposed that the D Method be abandoned in favor of the E A Method as a subtraction procedure because of its proficiency in skill, namely, accuracy and rate of work. He further stated that: (a) the E A Method makes a lighter demand upon memory than does the D Method; (b) the E A Method is easier than the D Method when two or more successive zeros occur in the minuend as in the example 9000—3467; (c) in the example 61—34, one addition and three subtractions are required by the D Method, while two additions and two subtractions are required by the E A Method, and it is a generally accepted fact that children find addition easier than subtraction.

[1] Johnson, J. T. *The Merits of Different Methods of Subtraction*, JOURNAL OF EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH, X, 279-290, 1924.

In Murray's study[2] it was found that in both the junior and senior groups the D Method was inferior to the E A Method in both accuracy and rate, and in amounts large enough, in most cases, to be highly reliable. The Committee on Primary School Subjects, which sponsored the study, recommended the adoption of the E A Method throughout the schools of Scotland, in view of the difference in favor of the E A Method.

The controlled experimental evidence on the effect of changing from D to E A is quite limited and seemingly conflicting. Over thirty years ago Winch[3] found that 12-year-old girls who attempted such a change subtracted as well as, or better, after a few weeks of practice, than a comparable group which continued to use decomposition and did not change to equal additions. The results of Weaver's[4] more recent study with college freshmen presented a different picture, however. He found that although students who changed from D to E A improved their subtraction skill during the course of controlled practice periods, their skill remained significantly lower than that for a comparable group who continued using the decomposition method during controlled practice and did not change to equal additions. Of course, since these two studies dealt with subjects of widely different age levels, the results are not directly comparable.

The D Method is more easily rationalized and understood by children and is preferable for initial instruction. It has been suggested that compound subtraction be introduced by the D Method as is usually done now, and later change to the E A Method. Therefore, it would be possible for children to have the benefit of the better method for computational skill at a later date. It is evident that more research needs to be done in this area.

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[2] Murray, John. *The Relative Merits of Teaching Subtraction,* STUDIES IN ARITHMETIC, II, 21-70. Publications of the Scottish Council for Research in Education. London: University of the Scottish Council for Research in Education. London: University of London Press, 1941.

[3] Winch, W. H. *"Equal Additions" versus "Decomposition" in Teaching Subtraction; An Experimental Research.* JOURNAL OF EXPERIMENTAL PEDAGOGY 5:207-20 (1920) and 6:261-70 (1921).

[4] Weaver, J. Fred. *Skill in Subtraction: The Effect of Changing from the Method of Decomposition to the Method of Equal Additions.* Doctor's dissertation. Baltimore: The Johns Hopkins University, 1952. (Typewritten)

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A-CAMPING WE WILL GO!

Dorothy R. Foster

In just a few weeks two seventh grade science-math classes are scheduled for five days at the school camp. All possible preliminary steps have been taken. The two teachers are acquainted with the camp setup, and its resources in environment, equipment and personnel. The science program has been deliberately guided so that there are many possible trip activities which will be direct outgrowths of the regular work and there has been difficulty the last few days refraining from suggesting these to the class. Other faculty members in the junior high school are aware of the plans and ready to assist wherever possible. Both teachers are convinced that school camping is an extremely worthwhile expansion of the school program and that its objectives are sound. With these facts in mind it is hoped that the youngsters will have the most valuable camp experiences they can during their five days, and that they be guided carefully during the coming weeks.

This was the status of two seventh-grade science-math teachers on February eleventh last winter. They knew that the trip was to be the latter part of March during the maple sugar season. The two divisions which had been chosen some weeks before had been working independently in science on forest conservation units unaware of what was in store for them. Now it was time for the youngsters to begin to make plans.

February eleventh was a crucial day. The problem was not that of gaining the youngsters' interest but rather that that of establishing correct attitudes toward the camp exence. It was approached in terms of how they could expand their present work in forest conservation by seeing and whenever possible, experiencing the things about which they had studied—tree growth, evidences of tree diseases and of harmful insects, good forest management, lumbering procedures, forest uses, and campfire safety. By moving the classroom to the school camp they could do all this. Thus, their trip would be an expansion of the regular school program and not a picnic or five day outing, although all agreed that there would be more fun in the new "classroom." The camp facilities and staff were explained in detail so that the children would begin to be acquainted with the type of life they would lead at camp. The cost ($13.50 for board, room, transportation, and camp insurance) was presented as a challenge for them to earn at least part of the money. Naturally there were many varied questions. Some could be answered directly but many were left as problems for them to solve in the coming pre-camp weeks, thus opening paths for group planning.

With a long-time, active interest in the outdoors, Dorothy R. Foster, seventh and eighth grade teacher in the Weeks Junior High School, Newton, Mass., is well-qualified to write on school camping trips. As a teacher of science and mathematics, she has taken a keen interest in coordinating the school-camp project each year and helped prepare the Newton Guide for Planning School Camping Trips.

Parent Cooperation

Because parent approval of and cooperation with the school camping program is so necessary, the teachers felt it their responsibility to keep the families well informed and thus help avoid misunderstandings while gaining cooperation. The first step in this direction was the letter which went home the day the youngsters were told of the trip and which summarized the objectives of school camping, suggested some possible camp activities, described the living quarters, urged that the children earn at least part of the cost, and invited the parents to a meeting for a more detailed explanation. For those unable to attend the meeting but who wished further information, an opportunity was given them to request a phone call or conference. These not only served to inform parents but also to give the teachers one more opportunity for contact with the home as well as a chance to discover individual pupil needs at camp. At the parent meeting a member of the regular camp staff was present. After an explanation of the trip purposes and plans, Kodachromes of the camp and of previous camp groups in action were shown. A question period further clarified the plans. At this time parents were urged to encourage their youngsters to earn at least part of their expenses. These meetings are less well attended as the camp program in the city has developed but because of newcomers to the school system and the advantages of the personal contacts, they are still important. If a child had any individual health problem or other needs, they were asked to notify the teachers before the group left for camp. From this time on until after the camp week, individual parent contacts were made as needed. As soon as the pupil committee could organize it, a mimeographed list of necessary clothing and equipment was sent home. Finally a few days before leaving, a bulletin was sent reviewing the time of departure, camp address, camp phone number (for emergency only), and time of expected arrival back at school.

Almost from the beginning of the class discussion of the trip, the need for committee planning was recognized by the boys and girls. To help them have an over-all picture of the entire program a questionnaire was designed

to stimulate and broaden their thinking. As the committees were organized, each was given another set of questions pertaining to their area of responsibility. Every student was a member of one major committee and in a few cases of a minor one.

Because of general anxiety concerning personal clothing and equipment, this committee was soon at work. They planned in terms of March weather in its varied forms, of the needs of five days, and of space limitations on the bus. They soon found out that one list would be sufficient for both boys and girls due to the similarity of their camp clothes. A flashlight, stationery, a book to read, and other essentials were included as well as a few optional items. The work of this committee then turned to listing and obtaining general group equipment such as Plaster of Paris, Scotch Tape, magnifying glasses, a few reference books, etc. They acted as the clearinghouse for all committee needs. Using their check list, they took charge of all packing and unpacking both at school and camp and finally returned all borrowed items.

The cook-out committee became involved in choosing a well-balanced menu for one meal that was reasonable in cost and that they would be able to prepare in the open. They were encouraged to broaden their experiences by avoiding the traditional hot dogs and hamburgers and soon they were studying outdoor cook books. Of course, types of campfires and safety factors began to be important with the result that the lieutenant in the city fire department, who plays a vital part in our school camping program, was invited to speak to them. He explained campfire safety precautions, made suggestions for their menu, and then in response to questions gave much valuable information about fire hazards and fire prevention. As a result of his assistance and their committee work, the cook-out menu request was sent to the camp staff in due time and they were ready to take charge of the cook-out at camp.

To answer the many questions about what they would do evenings, another group of youngsters began to plan. The class had already decided to take advantage of an astronomy evening to observe constellations, to look through the camp telescope, and to see filmstrips, and had requested the secretary to send an invitation to the astronomy consultant. After much careful thought this committee had plans ready for the other three evenings – a campfire of singing, Paul Bunyan stories, talent, and a ghost story by a competent class member; a program of paper bag dramatics, singing, and a demonstration of square dancing; and finally for an evening of square and social dancing. Different committee members made ready to assume charge of these programs while at camp and to enlist the help of staff members as needed.

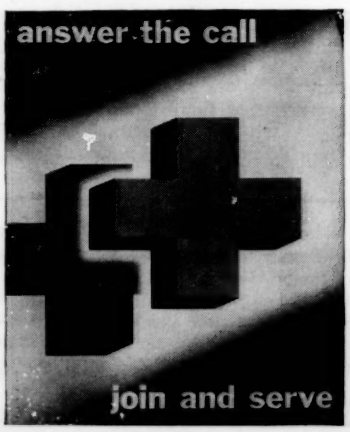
The boys and girls readily agreed that sometime during each day should be free for recreation and optional activities and so a small group began thinking along these lines. Again they were challenged to broaden their experiences by avoiding games and such that they could do just as well at school or at home. They studied camp books and found a number of interesting nature games. These, along with suggestions for whittling, making compass trails, singing, tracking, and taking pictures, gave them ideas on which to build while at camp.

With a little guidance, the youngsters recognized that a rainy day or days could be a very upsetting factor at camp, or could be another happy camp day with a revised schedule. A group set to work listing possible activities and referring the list of necessary equipment to the clothing and equipment committee. They considered the need for both active and quiet activities and tried to relate as many as possible to camp. Their list ranged from conservation films to musical chairs, from preparing exhibits to take back to school to "Twenty Questions" based on natural objects; and from writing letters home to learning artificial respiration. Fortunately, there was only one rainy afternoon but there were so many activities from which to choose that no one was really aware they had to stay indoors.

For some, the idea of sleeping away from home in double-decker bunks was a challenging experience. Exciting as it sounded, they realized that some pre-planning would make for happier nights at camp.

They knew they would eat in groups of eight with two adults and that they would set tables, serve, clear up, and help with dishwashing. The dining hall committee had the problem of arranging for permanent table groups. As soon as this was settled agreeably they arranged a rotating schedule of work assignments so that all would share as nearly alike as possible. Both lists were typed and posted on arrival at camp for reference. They also considered what we called common courtesies in the dining hall and presented their recommendations to the entire group so that everyone knew and had a part in establishing the standards for their dining hall.

A camp council allows for a workable method of solving general camp problems as they arise as well as giving the youngsters a chance to participate in on-the-spot camp planning. Because of their active school council, they readily accepted the idea of one at camp. Their main problem in the pre-camp weeks was to choose the members and, recognizing the importance of good choices, they considered the matter carefully. Would the present committee become the camp council (they were sorely tempted), would they use the division officers, would the teacher appoint the members (she explained that this could defeat the purpose of the council), or would there be a general election? They finally agreed to have each permanent activity group – groups of eight or ten organized by the class who would work together throughout the camp week on scheduled activities – elect their own council member. These representatives were ready at camp to help re-schedule or suggest new activities and to recognize and solve general problems that arose, such as too much noise during the first two meals, and getting the table setters on duty promptly. This camp council met daily and then presented their recommendations to the entire group.



The finance committee had the important job of collecting the money ($13.50) from each person. As soon as they had estimated the total amount for which they would be responsible, they began to plan very cautiously making check-lists and getting receipts ready. It was interesting to watch their expressions after each collection as they tallied their accounts prior to taking the money to the school office for safekeeping. They found too that they had to observe the checks carefully to see that they were properly made out. To be sure, an eye was kept on them as they worked but as inconspicuously as possible so they could really feel the responsibility. Probably this experience meant a great deal more to them than much of their regular math work.

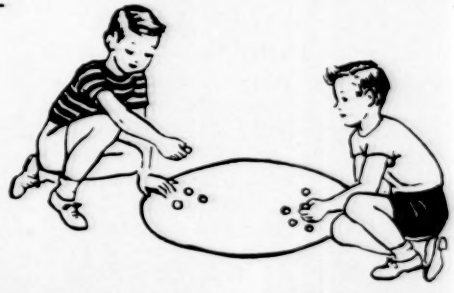
Although this may sound like rather rigid planning, in practice it worked well. The children realized that some decisions they were making would have to be subject to change at camp due to factors with which they were not familiar, to variations in the weather, or to events or discoveries of the moment. However, these changes were easily made because of the careful thinking that had preceded them.

The class periods began to have a new spontaneity because of the new and vital purpose for learning. While much of the committee work was carried on before and after school, class periods were used partly to discuss and accept or revise committee recommendations but mostly to carry on those learnings which were necessary for a successful trip. It soon was accepted that their main purpose was to participate in outdoor activities that would help them learn more about forest conservation and particularly about one use of trees – maple sugaring. More interest now went into the final preparation of reports on their unit. They began to benefit by visiting a sawmill and a forest where lumbering was in progress and by actually tapping sugar-maple trees, boiling down the sap, and obtaining their own syrup and sugar. Of course, more information had to be obtained now than originally planned. For example, to tap sugar-maple trees one had to be able to recognize them which involved knowing something about bark, about lateral, terminal, opposite, and alternate buds, about the number, arrangement, and color of bud scales, about three shapes, etc. To understand where the sap came from involved knowledge of photosynthesis, tree growth, and the wintering of deciduous trees. Weather became even more important for in addition to its influencing clothing requirements and keeping them inside during storms, it now was a factor in the running of the sap. This intensified need for knowledge by the class could be elaborated much further with respect to lumbering, sawmills, campfires, etc., but this brief summarization should help to indicate how a school camping trip stimulates and expands the regular learning program.

Other related activities were also anticipated and preparation for them began. Road maps were obtained so that the route from school to camp could be traced. Map symbols, names of committees, and distances between points were considered. Thus, each child was ready to use the map he shared with his seatmate on the bus while making the trip. Government contour maps of the two adjoining quadrangles which included the camp and its vicinity were studied.

Sometimes the question arises as to whether it is possible to include all subject matter areas in a camping experi-

a complete program for the primary grades



LEARNING TO USE ARITHMETIC

READINESS BOOK **BOOK 1** **BOOK 2**

AGNES G. GUNDERSON
GEORGE E. HOLLISTER

These bright new textbook-workbooks help teachers guide children to an understanding of number meanings and relationships. The graded exercises aim at enjoyable and thoughtful practice in identifying and associating numbers in familiar situations.

Suggestions for teaching appear at the bottom of each page. These are books that every child will love, for the source of the learning situations is his own everyday world. Gaily colored pictures of toys, animals, friends, home, and the joys of holidays and parties help develop specific number ideas. The books are easy to use; the type is large and clear, the pages lie flat when open, ample working space is provided for the child's own drawing or writing. Accompanied by Teachers Guides and by a new professional book, *Teaching Arithmetic in Grades I and II*, by Hollister and Gunderson.

D. C. HEATH AND COMPANY

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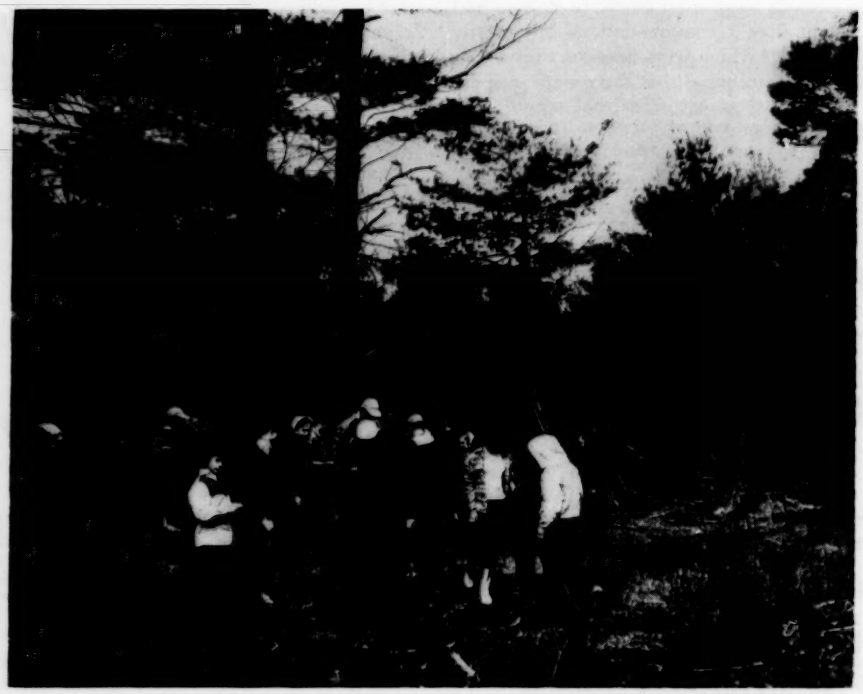
ence. It was found that preparations extended into many areas even though only the science-math teachers accompanied the group. The science preparation is obvious from the foregoing. Mathematics was involved in the scale of maps, meaning of contour lines, cost of food for the cook-out, individual graphs of money earned for the trip, forestry problems (Ranger 'Rithmetic for Grade Six and Seven distributed by the Forest Service of the Department of Agriculture is excellent), angles as a part of compass work, and fluid measurements for the maple sap and syrup. The English-social studies teacher used the trip as motivation for letter-writing lessons in preparation for the letters they later wrote to their families and to her. Compositions were written about what they expected to gain from the trip. They also discussed the diaries they were to keep while at camp. The music teacher helped them with camp songs. The art teacher discussed camp crafts and photography with them. The cook-out committee consulted the foods teacher about the menu. The woodworking instructor was helpful to those working on uses of lumber. This relationship to all subject areas continued on the trip and into the follow-up period after the childrens' return to school.

from experiences that were closely related to the forest conservation topic to those that were just better done at camp than at school. This served not only to broaden their ideas but to give a good indication of the areas in which their interests lay—at least during pre-camp days. From these results and from the interests as expressed in later discussions and conferences, two more lists were made—one for group and one for individual activities—and given them shortly before leaving for camp. The first was aimed to help them in group planning at camp. The other was for each youngster to choose one or more items to be his responsibility while at camp and to report on when he returned. Some looked for signs of wild life, others watched for evidences of erosion, while others collected natural oddities. Another very helpful list was the one which suggested things to look for while traveling on the bus—communities passed through, kinds of business and individual occupations, condition of rivers and brooks (this was the time of the spring freshets), signs of erosion, evidences of forest fires, etc. These were the basis for lively group discussions and for individual written reports after returning to school. These observations served the double purpose



While on a field trip in a cut-over area, the group has just been sent on quests by the leader. They are using their eyes to locate specific natural objects to be found in this type of environment.

Value of Check Lists

In order to stimulate their thinking further and to help them coordinate their ideas, several check lists were used. Early in the planning sessions they checked a list of about forty suggested activities indicating their interests. This was mostly teacher organized but did include pupil suggestions. It ranged from individual to group activities and of giving the youngsters something to do while traveling but, more important, of making the bus trip a learning experience. These guide lists were never considered all-inclusive but were always subject to pupil additions. They did however stimulate and coordinate the planning before and during the trip and gave some direction to the follow-up period.

Quite a number of other activities were included. Early in the planning period Kodachromes of the camp and of activities of previous campers were shown to help the youngsters begin to relate themselves to camp life which for some was to be an entirely new experience. Other films on forestry and maple sugaring were used. The earning of money for their trip was mentioned frequently as they kept their graphs indicating progress toward the $13.50 goal and as they exchanged ideas for ways of earning it. Individuals were checked casually but with purpose to discover how they were succeeding for, had any child had real difficulty obtaining the money, sources of help were available. There were conferences with parents of pupils who said they were unable to go on the trip—one girl changed her mind as a result but another really could not go because of physical limitations, so a special program was arranged for her while the class was gone. In the discussions on forestry and maple sugaring an effort was made to develop their vocabulary in these areas partly to be one more learning experience and partly to help them understand the resource people who would help later on the trip. Safety precautions at camp were discussed—the need for changing wet clothing, the proper use of knives, the necessity of staying with the group while on field trips, the helpfulness of the nurse in case of illness, cuts, and blisters, the need of being careful about drinking water, etc. Courtesy in the dining hall and dormitories, on the bus, on the trail, and particularly toward the camp staff and resource people was included to help them all remember and to guide those who were not as well trained along these lines. The care of camp property also came under consideration as they talked about the proper use of someone else's things and of how their carelessness would reflect far beyond their small group. This was expanded to include a discussion of collecting natural objects—having a purpose, considering the environment, and using good judgment about quantity. It was found that a short field trip near school gives basic preparation in many of these areas. Dormitory care was another consideration so that on arrival they were ready to unpack and arrange their belongings in an orderly fashion and then were ready to do the necessary daily pickup and cleanup. These areas of preparation were usually not mentioned as unrelated items but were included incidentally yet directly whenever the occasion arose. In many cases they were a part of committee reports and discussions.

Other routine details also had to be completed. The legal parent permission forms had to be carefully checked. A pupil committee did the major part of collecting the money and dental certificates. The physical education department was consulted concerning physical restrictions. This type of information was further amplified by the return of student data sheets sent to the parents asking about recent illnesses, diet restrictions, limitations of any kind, medicine requirements, tendencies toward enuresis, etc. Any pertinent information of this kind was given the nurse and counselors soon after arrival. This questionnaire also included home and business address and telephone of the parents for use in case of emergency. Plans were made for the group to be examined by the school nurse the day before camp and by the school doctor on the morning they left. Frequent contacts were made with the camp coordinator to help us obtain resource personnel and to arrange for the special trips.

Activities were scheduled using permanent activity groups of eight to ten youngsters. Sometimes each section worked separately but at other times two, three, or even all six groups were combined depending on the activity. By rotating the schedule of these groups, everyone had a chance to tap trees, boil sap, or participate in any other vital experiences. Planning for adult supervision of all groups at all times was essential as was having each adult always know when and where his responsibilities were. A few days before leaving a copy of the tentative schedule was sent ahead so that the camp staff would be aware of the plans. Obviously weather, new and developing interests, and unexpected events necessitated frequent revisions of this schedule. The camp staff, camp council, and teachers reconsidered and revised the schedule. The camp staff, camp council, and teachers reconsidered and revised the schedule daily in the light of the developing program.

If the foregoing sounds like a busy program, it is no exaggeration and yet it is certainly interesting, stimulating, and extremely worthwhile. While a rigidly planned schedule is not favored, one permitting a flexible program at camp with children doing considerable pre-planning is recommended. Otherwise the pupils might take so long to get into a school-camp atmosphere with a readiness for living and working together purposefully that much time would be lost and for those pupils who had never been to camp or even away from home or parents overnight, the adjustment would be unduly severe. This pre-planning period became challenging to both the class and teacher as well as one of the happiest periods of the year.

Lasting Advantages for All Concerned

This school-camp experience had many advantages. Teachers knew the children as individuals much better after living with them for five days, and they worked together more easily afterwards. It stimulated the classroom experiences before and after the trip. There were frequent references during the remainder of the year to the camp experiences and learnings. The material they included in their diaries was indicative of the varied and yet specific learnings that went on, many of which could never have been acquired in the classroom. There were many comments concerning their new realization of why lumber and maple syrup are so expensive. The class gained in group spirit and several individuals who were quiet and unnoticed in school became valuable group members in the "outdoor classroom." Many expressed their satisfaction in having learned to get along better with others and in adjusting to group living. Three months later when they were asked on an English paper to make suggestions to help with planning for next year's seventh graders and to tell what activities of theirs they felt should be continued, over half of the group mentioned the trip as one of the most valuable experiences. On the post-camp evaluation sheets which the parents were asked to fill in, there was practically unanimous support of the program. Thus with parents, pupils, teachers, and other involved groups backing it, the school-camp program has great possibilities. To many the few weeks before camp when pupils prepare themselves for living and working together in the "outdoor classroom" are a vital factor in the entire experience.

EDUCATION IN ISRAEL

Alfred Grant Walton

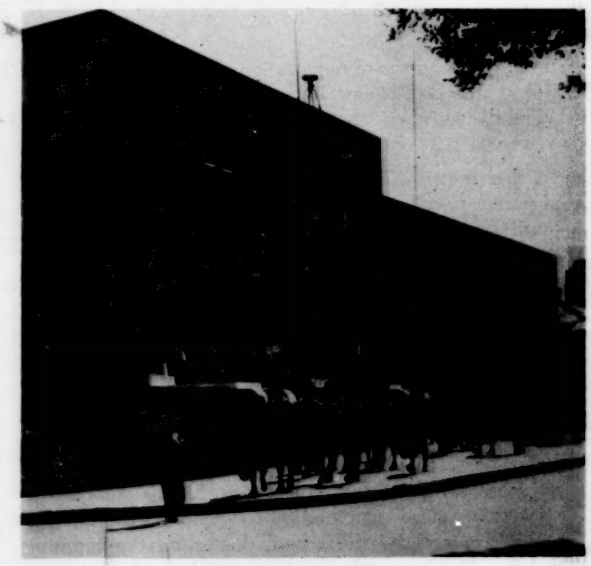
Dr. Alfred Frank Walton, presently pastor of the Flatbush-Tompkins Congregational Church in Brooklyn, New York, has had a distinguished career embracing earlier parishes, radio preaching for several years and television programs. In addition he has written several books, served on many philanthropic boards and traveled extensively throughout Europe.

Any community in the United States whose population had nearly doubled in five years would be faced with an educational problem of the first magnitude. But when such a situation exists in a whole nation the task of absorbing and integrating the increased school population is overwhelming. Yet this is exactly the condition that has faced the new nation of Israel since it was established in 1948. It would be hard to find any place on the face of the earth where there is a greater combination of social, political, economic and cultural problems than the Israeli government is trying to meet today. It is necessary to have some knowledge of these conditions in order to appreciate the emergency conditions in the educational field.

When Israel established her independence half a decade ago she extended an invitation to Jews everywhere throughout the world to come there as citizens and help to establish the new state. It was called "the ingathering of the exiles." The response was immediate and great hordes poured in from all over the world. They came from Iran and Iraq, from Poland and Germany, from Egypt and the Balkans bringing with them, all told, fifty different languages and as many different types of culture. There were no barriers; the able-bodied and the sick were included; the rich and the poor, the young and the old, the blind and the orphaned were equally welcomed. The generosity of this policy is apparent but it has created tremendous organizational difficulties. These people had to be sheltered and fed; they had to be provided with work and integrated into the productive life of the nation. The extensive health program is indicative of the situation which the new government has had to face. Of the 700,000 that have entered during the last five years, the health authorities report that there were 70,000 cases of active trachoma, 30,000 cases of schistosomiasis, 3000 open cases of tuberculosis, 28,000 cases of arrested tuberculosis, 2000 psychotic cases, and 10,000 children with brain diseases. Of the 47,000 Yemenite Jews who poured into Israel, 11,000 of them were hospitalized in the first six months.

Israel's political life is harassed by the continuing conflict between the Arabs and the Jews. While she is presently living in a state of armed truce, the feelings between the two groups are tense and without the slightest evidence of abatement. Almost every day there are border incidents with accusations on both sides. The Arab states deeply resent the condition of the 700,000 Arab refugees who fled from Israel and are now in their care. While the United States and the United Nations have contributed vast sums to ease the suffering of these unfortunate people, and while Israel has recently agreed to return the bank balances of the Arabs which have been frozen in the country, the Arabs are insistent that the country belongs to them and are adamant in their demands that their properties be restored. Israel would find it physically impossible to receive all of these refugees even if she were willing to do so and in the meantime these unfortunate victims live in a state of continual misery, uncertainty and despair. There will be no peace in the Middle East until this refugee problem is resolved.

Israel's difficulties are further multiplied by her economic requirements. She has made remarkable progress in the development of her meager resources and some of the results of her land reclamation program are nothing short of phenomenal. But even now the country is able to produce only ten per cent of the requirements of her economy. She cannot sell her citrus fruits and other commodities to the Arabs and she cannot secure from them the supplies that they might be able to provide. Thus for example, while Iran and Iraq have plenty of oil, Israel must send to Venezuela and other remote countries to get her requirements. Water is an indispensable requirement for the agricultural development on which the government must rely, but despite the progress that has been made in draining swamps and in irrigation, progress has come slowly. To provide for her financial needs Israel has had to rely greatly on the gifts of wealthy Jews throughout the United States and the other nations of the world and



1. Bilu School—Tel Aviv

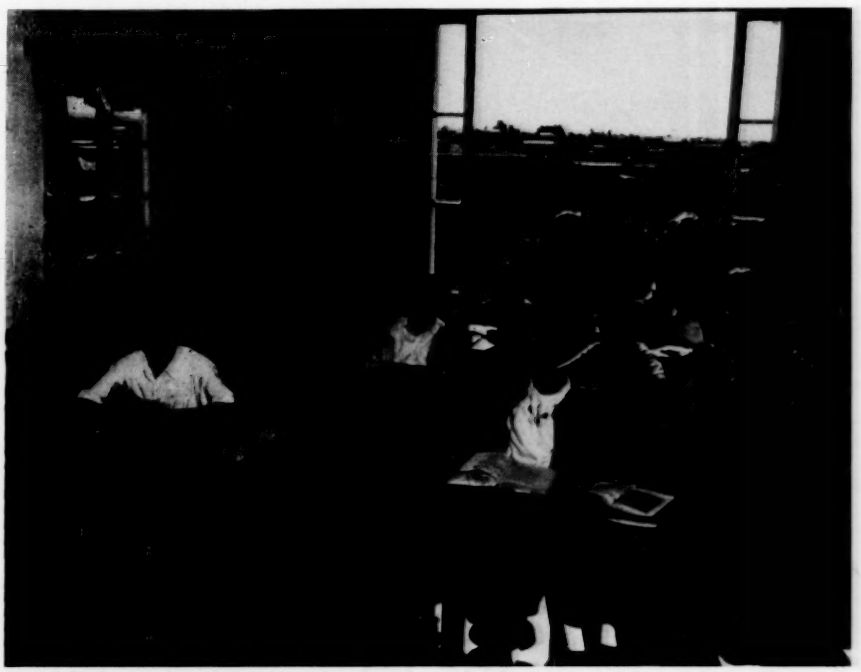
this help must continue to come for a long time, if Israel is to avoid bankruptcy and financial chaos.

It is in the midst of these many complicated situations that Israel is dealing with her problems of education. Manifestly when large sums must be used for the maintenance of her military establishment and for the promotion of public works, education can get only a modest share of the available funds. The leaders of the present Israeli government have the characteristically high regard for education which Jews have always held and they fully realize the necessity of developing a strong educational system if their country is to be firmly established and a democratic system is to be preserved. They know that democracy can function effectively only when there is an intelligent citizenry capable of performing the functions of democracy. They realize the need for intelligent leadership in every field if their dream of a strong, well-established nation is to be realized. The divergent groups and cultures comprising the population must be welded into a homogeneous whole. The problems of American suburban communities in absorbing hundreds of youths into their school systems is child's play compared with that which exists in every city, town, village and hamlet in Israel.

Three years and a half ago Israel adopted a system of compulsory education. The schools are free and all children between the ages of five to fourteen are required to attend. Between the ages of fourteen and eighteen compulsory attendance is required if the pupil has not previously completed his primary education. Secondary education is not free and in some of these schools the tuition is even more than at the universities. For those who are beyond school age but who desire to study, the government has provided evening classes very much as is done in the United States.

Unified Language Developing

One of the big difficulties in Israel's educational program is the differences of languages represented. It is no easy task for teachers to do their work when classrooms are crowded with children speaking fifty different languages and dialects. Since Hebrew is the official language of the new state, the educational program is carried out in that language but many are wholly unfamiliar with it. To establish this common denominator in the classroom has not been easy. Educators in Israel report that despite the problem created by this condition, it has had a distinct advantage for when children in the homes begin to speak in Hebrew the parents find it necessary to be familiar with the language also. This creation of a unified language for the entire population promises to promote the unity of the nation as a whole and to help the many groups that have poured into the country feel their oneness with each other.



2. The School at the Children's Village Kfar Glickson

Education has been greatly hampered by a shortage of adequately trained teachers. In order to get an efficient teaching staff the government has had to promote teacher training through special emergency classes for that purpose. Training schools had provided only 3500 teachers, which was a reservoir quite inadequate for the needs of the rapidly expanding school system. One-third of the teachers are not adequately trained but the government is insisting that these teachers continue their training even while at work. While the compensation for teachers is reasonably adequate under the present economy, the Ministry of Education is fully aware that the requisite demands cannot be met overnight and Israel must continue to struggle to increase the teaching staff for a long time to come. However, much progress has been made. Five years ago there were 6,000 teachers in Israel; today there are 15,000.

School building and equipment are also in short supply. Materials are scarce and the building program has lagged behind not only because of these shortages but also because of the heavy costs required. If Israel could be relieved of the heavy burden of maintaining her military establishment through a peaceful settlement of her troubles with the Arab states, education as well as other requirements of the state would fare much better. The shortage of buildings and equipment has required doubling up with two shifts per day in many places just as has been required in congested areas in our own country. Desks that ordinarily would serve two pupils must serve four and in some instances pupils are required to sit on the floor. But the slogan of the country "We take in every one" applies to the school system as well. The government is determined that her youth shall be educated, that none shall be turned away and that a place must be found for every one who comes.

3. Elementary School—Herzliah

The Kibbutzim

A considerable part of the educational work of Israel is done in the kibbutzim and the cooperative settlements throughout the country. The kibbutz is a unique institution. We have nothing like it in the United States. A kibbutz is a communal community in which many families live as one. The land is leased from the government or from the Jewish National Agency and the residents live for each other. The kibbutz provides food and shelter for all and what is produced is for the benefit of all. Money is not needed and is rarely used. Parents work on the soil while the children remain at home. Parents see their children at the close of the day but the children have their own sleeping quarters. During the day the children are cared for and in every kibbutz education must be provided. These are small educational units in some cases, no larger than an old-fashioned country school in the United States a generation ago. The Eddie Cantor Youth Aliyah Home is a kibbutz entirely for children. Many are orphans who have lost father or mother or both. It is located just a few hundred rods from the border between Israel and Jordan. Here the educational program involves "learning and labor." The children attend school classes until 1:00 p. m. and then go out and work in the fields. A strong self-sustaining community has been developed in an area that was thought to be wholly unproductive. Eighty-five per cent of the children in the Eddie Cantor Youth home came from Arab countries. This unusual settlement is only one of the more than 600 kibbutzim in Israel and in each of them educational facilities are available.

There are still 170,000 Arabs living within the borders of Israel. This group is made up of those who did not leave the country at the time of the war in 1948 or who have returned through infiltration or through special arrangement. The education of Arab children represents a further complication for the Ministry of Education. The Arabs have always had separate schools for boys and girls while Jewish schools are coeducational. It has not been easy to get well-trained teachers for the Arab schools and since many Arabic children did not attend schools when they were present in large numbers in the country it has not been too easy to make the Arab group "educationally-minded," certainly not by comparison with the Jewish passion for education. The government is seeking to improve the methods for teaching Arabic and they have found a sympathetic response from the Arabs themselves. In some instances the Arabs have been willing to try education on a coeducational basis and they have found that it has worked out acceptably and at considerable saving of expense. Some of the Arabic schools have even insisted on the teaching of Hebrew as well as Arabic. While Jewish schools are open to Arabic pupils, only a few care to accept this opportunity. Thus Israel really has a dual system of education on her hands with a corresponding multiplication of her educational problems.

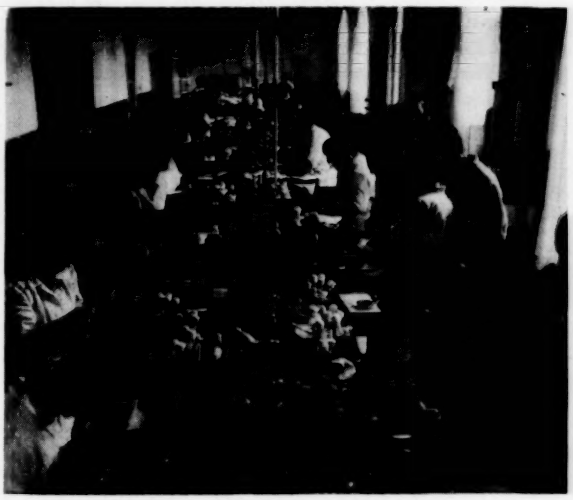
Much is being done in Israel in the field of education below and above the levels of primary and secondary education. Kindergartens for children have received special attention and those who are working in this field boast that Israel's kindergarten system is more highly developed than any other country in the world. It is apparent that under the conditions under which Israel is seeking to develop her economy a kindergarten system is highly important as both fathers and mothers must work during the day in the stern business of survival. With children adequately cared for in kindergartens, the productive energies of the nation are greatly increased. The women's Jewish organization known as Hadassah has done a pre-eminent work in this field.

Higher Education in Israel

Two large institutions represent Israel's efforts in the field of higher education. The first of these is the Hebrew University in Jerusalem. Originally its work was carried on in buildings located on Mount Scopus but since the division of the city, Mount Scopus is in "No Man's Land" and the facilities there cannot be used. But the University

has continued its program using 24 different buildings in the Jewish part of the ancient city. Facilities are limited, libraries are scattered, students must travel long distances from place to place and the element of unity is difficult to maintain. Yet the work continues with more students than the school can handle. One observer of conditions in the country has said that "brains" are "a dime a dozen" in Israel and it is certainly true that the nation is steadily increasing its supply of capable and intelligent young people who are to provide the necessary "brains" for the future.

The second important institution of higher learning is the famous Institute of Technology located in Haifa and popularly known as the Technion. This school has been in existence since 1912. Funds for its establishment were provided by gifts of philanthropic Jews in Moscow and New York. While the Technion was established in 1912, its program did not get fully under way until 1924. Since that time it has been moving steadily forward and it is now rated as the leading institution of its kind in the Middle East. It has university standards and its curriculum covers a wide range of subjects. There is an evening Technion for those who cannot use the facilities of the school during the day. Two years at the evening Technion covers the equivalent of one year in the regular school. The program of the Technion includes a Technical High School, a Nautical School, extension courses for Engineers and Architects and vocational classes. In twenty different



4. Hebrew University—Jerusalem

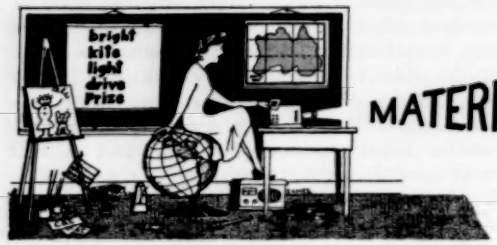
laboratories the students are wrestling with the various engineering problems related to the enterprises being carried out in Israel. Building materials are tested; soil tests related to dams, reservoirs and ponds are being made; research in fluid mechanics related to hydraulics and sewage treatment is being pursued and studies in town planning and housing are given constant attention. One unique project now being investigated at the Technion is the possibility of house construction with a removable roof. In some areas of Israel there is practically no rain for eight months of the year which would make such a house feasible. The Technion started its work forty years ago with thirty students and six teachers. Today there are 2000 students of whom 1200 are working for degrees. Recently the government has provided the school with a new site on Mount Carmel. Three hundred acres of land have been set aside and new building construction has already started there. In this new location the Technion will be able to centralize its work and greatly expand its facilities. The present President of the institution is General Yaacov Dori, sometimes called the Eisenhower of Israel. General Dori was chief of staff of the Israel army during the Israel-Arab war.

Still another educational project of outstanding importance in Israel is the Weizmann Institute of Science located at Rehovoth. Here at the gateway to the Negev in the heart of the citrus industry a faculty of eighty scientists are pursuing their studies in the field of biochemical research. David Passow, director of Public Relations at the Institute, says that one of the problems now engaging their attention is the discovery of a soil coagulant whereby the loose and unproductive soil of the desert wastes of the Negev may be made available for production. The geo-physical department is studying oil and water possibilities. There is a general feeling that oil must be somewhere in Israel and its discovery would do more for the economic stability of Israel than any other single development that might come. Half of the scientists at the Institute come from the country itself and the other half are imported from other nations. Israel finds it necessary to develop her own scientific personnel because it cannot compete with American and British interests that "gobble up" available young scientists as soon as they graduate from technical schools. While the scientists working at the Institute look upon their research as a dedication to pure science in its universal aspect, there is naturally a deep interest in the scientific problems whose solution would be benefical to Israel's economic development. Mr. Passow states that the scientists working in the pharmaceutical field are literally turning mud into gold. One substance which has been developed at the Institute from indigenous plants in Israel has been found effective in the treatment of schistosomiasis, caused by worms, which is one of the common diseases of the Middle East.

In the whole general program of education in Israel, Hadassah, the women's Zionist organization in America, has made a notable contribution. One of their projects has been the Alice L. Seligberg Trade High School where girls are schooled in the needle trades and domestic science. In this trade school there is a fine mechanics and precision instrument workshop and also a printing and graphic arts workshop. Hadassah is also operating two institutes on the Junior college level. One is to train personnel in the management of hotels and tourist trade and the other is for fashion and design. The Hotel Management Institute is now being moved from Jerusalem to Tel Aviv where its work will be connected with one of Israel's newest and most modern hotels.

The development of a well-rounded educational program for a new nation of nearly a million and a half population is no kindergarten task. Hampered by lack of funds, a lack of adequate facilities to keep up with the rapidly expanding population, with many language conflicts and the necessity of a dual system of education for Jews and Arabs, the Israeli government is tackling a herculean task. The results thus far achieved are far beyond what might reasonably have been expected.

(Photographs accompanying article supplied through courtesy of Israel Office of Information, New York.)



MATERIALS

The Fifth National Science Fair will be held at Purdue University, May 13-15. It takes a year to get ready for a Fair, but young people in junior and senior high need to look ahead to the time when they will compete locally, in their state, and nationally. Write to Science Service, 1719 N Street, N. W., Washington 6, D. C., for the story on Science Clubs of America (no charge for affiliation of your club with them, nor for handbooks, forms, badges). They also handle the famous Westinghouse Science Talent Search. Ask about that, too. It may pay your own youngster's way through college.

The Story of Farm Chemicals, free from E. I. Dupont De Nemours and Co., Wilmington, Delaware, looks like an issue of *Life* which is intended to bring us up-to-date on farm processes, people, animals, and adventures with insects and weeds. This is one of the informational-background brochures that do not sell anything directly, are beautifully styled, and educationally sound. (Excuse the editorial enthusiasm, but this is one of the best business-industry-education publications that has come across this desk.)

Free and Inexpensive Learning Materials is a classic teachers' aid produced by George Peabody College for Teachers, Nashville, Tenn. A recent careful check of its offerings found it reasonably up-to-date, and if use is any criterion, many of its materials are superior teaching aids. (Teachers have reported that the selected pamphlets found wide use in their classrooms during the last year.) In fact, someone has done a good job of selection, apparently, and the 194-page booklet is well worth its price, $1.00.

Life Filmstrips in color, made from its own pages of superb illustrations, are available at $6 each, six for $25. The World of the Past (in terms of its art); History of Western Culture; The World of Art; The World of Science and Natural History. (There are three series in black and white at $2.50 each filmstrip.) Order from *Life*, 9 Rockefeller Plaza, New York 20, or see *Life* for January 4, page 55 for a complete description. It is probable that those school systems which fail to purchase the color filmstrips are depriving their youngsters of one of the most valuable teaching aids available. Their value will become greater as the copies of the magazine disappear from the easy-to-get category.

Big River—30 minutes in color. Free loan from Mississippi River Commission Corps of Engineers, P.O. Box 80, Vicksburg, Miss. Shows the Lower Mississippi, and Inland Waterways project in the form of a "report" to the old river-boat pilot, Mark Twain.

TEACHING TIPS

Most pressing problem in old – and often in newly opened schools–is space. But some people need privacy and good working conditions or their time is wasted. The school nurse or doctor usually can have a room, but what about teachers who have charge of materials and school supplies? Speech classes and remedial reading classes cannot operate without exclusive use of a room. Screens can be used to close off one end of a corridor. In one school the principal lets small groups use his office while he is on his visits around the building. A map, globe, and dictionary are handy.

Sets of rubber alphabet stamps, and those with animal pictures were a delight when *you* went to school. Remember the perfect paper that had a stamped little lamb on it? Sets cost only two dollars, complete with pad at stationery stores.

Make *papier mache* by tearing up newspaper in small pieces, soaking in lots of water for two days. Mold figures from history, relief maps, stores and houses. Finish with the pulp mixed with wall-paper paste, then dry well, paint with oil or poster colors.

Get in touch with your largest trucking firm and ask the owner about the TRUCKIT, a three-dimensional paper community with dozens of kinds of trucks to fold and paste. Distributed *only* by local trucking associations.

Art center for all teachers releases home-room cupboards for more important things. – Supplies and Work Space for Good Teaching, Marion Rockwood. *The National Elementary Principal*, April 1953.

Borrow a 35mm. flash camera, take twenty colored slides, show them to your PTA or teachers' group. Pick one aspect of the classroom, don't use a shotgun technique! Suggestions: getting settled in the morning when the day is rainy and the first grade is popping with energy! Show *four* reading groups, and then show how two can merge for some things – posters, sand-table work, with compositions on the board for the third grade to read when they visit your second.

A little girl complained that some slow children had to have a book in order to read; *she* didn't need the words! But real reading is not this type of memorization. It is an individual process, and in a school system where most everything is class-centered, this poses problems. Don't have your children say "We just *learn* to read, we don't have time to *read*." – Phyllis O. Edwards in American Childhood, September, 1953.

The "Try-It" editor is indebted this month to the Newton Public Schools, Newton, Mass., for the ideas which appear in this section. They are reprinted with permission from the "School Report, 1952-1953."

Music at Countryside

Do New Schools Inspire Delightful Innovations?

Almost invariably visitors to Countryside School remark on the soft music which permeates the building. Now, in the corridors, music is a standard part of Countryside and does much to dispel that institution-like atmosphere which used to be a part of every school.

This music comes from records played on the school's intercommunication system and sent, throughout the school day, to all the corridor speakers. Occasionally, just before dismissal time and at the teacher's discretion, the music is played in the classrooms also. The selections used are on the light, quiet side; and the same ones are repeated throughout the day. Tchaikovsky's *Nutcracker Suite* and the Beethoven *Pastorale are among the favorites.*

Wider Horizons

Just as the teachers and high school seniors find it enriching to visit throughout the country, so have the sixth graders of several elementary schools broadened their experiences. Several times a month four or five sixth graders go to visit other sixth grades in the city. These visits are not mere pleasant departures from school regime; the travelers have even more school work to do. They must write invitations for dinner, thank-you notes, and reports to the classroom or student government on how other schools solve their problems.

Children find out firsthand, with competent disregard of color, race or creed, how other adults and children's homes, food, customs, values, and schools differ, even when all these people are alike in being Newtonites. Not only do the visitors read about courtesy and poise: the youngsters practice them in unfamiliar surroundings.

With no great expenditure of money or effort, our sixth grade children, by these visits, are enabled to improve their skills even as they broaden their background and understanding.

WHAT! NO TEACHERS?

High School Students Try Managing Study Halls

Can students manage their own study halls in high school?

The Honor Study Hall Committee of the Newton High School Legislature set out to prove that they can. Under the leadership of the Girls' Vice-President of the Associates, and with the interested cooperation of the high school administration, the committee called for volunteers, screened them, and established Honor Study Halls in almost every block.

One member of each group takes attendance. There is no "monitor" to keep order; every pupil, according to the plans worked out, is "on his honor." Those students who are ready for the responsibility find this a splendid opportunity to work on their own initiative.

Any problem that arises in an Honor Study Hall is handled by the student committee. Members of this group have had a valuable experience in planning and administering the program. Present plans call for gradual expansion in succeeding years of the Honor Study Hall plan.

OUR P.T.A. HAD A HOBBY NIGHT

Things were humming at the Davis School. As we approached the room where the hobbies were set up, we heard the unmistakable sounds of activity. Here were Davis School parents and children busy on their hobbies, exhibiting not only some of their finished pieces but also their skill as they worked for the rest of us to watch. The room was filled with a variety of projects, arranged in a pleasing panorama by the Art Department of the Newton Schools.

In a make-shift darkroom our P.T.A. president and his oldest son were developing pictures. Before our eyes, three Boy Scouts and their leader were making actual bows and arrows; for sheer perfection one father's intricate ship models were unsurpassed. Metal work was the hobbyy shared by a father and daughter, and nearby a mother made beautiful designs on copper foil. Next, we saw a weaver busy at her table-loom and marveled at the lovely handbag she made. Rug hooking, tray painting, and textile stenciling completed the parent demonstrations; and each activity was watched with interest and admiration.

The children's work had been transplanted from various classrooms and was only a sample of the creative activity our youngsters are experiencing day after day. One group was demonstrating potato and block printing, while nearby were our clay-modelers; more advanced modeling was being done by two of our former pupils, now in junior high school. The boys at the woodworking bench seemed right at home, and the sixth grader who did wire sculpturing was never without an audience. In the next group were children sewing, weaving, embroidering, and hooking rugs; beyond them, two boys were absorbed in their painting—one using water colors; the other, tempera paint.

The evening was a most satisfying one, for participants and spectators alike. Let's have more of this—parents, teachers, and children working and having fun together.

What's Cooking?

Still More Interesting Is Who's Cooking

The boys are cooking now!! In the foods lab. of one of our junior high schools, boys don their aprons and caps to prepare anything a hearty appetite might desire. They have developed a considerable flair for entertaining and enjoy planning, preparing, and serving a tea, a dinner, or a light snack. Each year they sponsor an eighth grade Cake Baking Contest. Their interest, enthusiasm, and master touch rightly entitle them to the name of Boys' Chef

Club. Their work does not go unrewarded. After successfully taking part in one extracurricular activity, each boy receives the right to wear the official insignia of a Chef—a chef's hat. Though made only of heavy white paper and cheesecloth, it is the "frosting on the cake" to each of the chefs. Each of the boys has earned his chef hat this year—and rightly so!

ENE ABOUT DOLLAR$

New Englanders are thrifty. Myth or fact?

In 18 of your elementary schools 3246 pupils have savings of $105,427.27 in the Newton Savings Bank. This is an average of $32.47, 22% above the national norm of $26.67.

It is a closely coordinated enterprise. Jimmy makes out his signature card and his deposit envelopes; he acquires habits of thrift and saving; he watches his money make money. Vera Bizzy, his teacher, is pleased that clerical work for her is minimized as she seals bankbooks and deposits into the room envelope and gives it to Mr. Careful, the bank collector who, on his scheduled weekly visit, totes the day's take to the bank in a canvas, padlocked bag. The cooperating bank staff handles ledger accounts and records all transactions.

The success of the program is a fine tribute to teachers of thrift and to the civic foresight and personal efforts of a team of Newton Savings Bankers who set the plan in motion in 1950 after studying school banking in Baltimore, Newark, and New York. It now costs the bank $.0521 per transaction for what it regards as the privilege of serving Newton's children. The plan, no immediate profit-maker for the bank, represents an investment in tomorrow, recognizes that immense good can come to the community whose citizens learned early the habit of saving.

EASY ON THE EYES

Teachers often place ten or more sentences on the blackboard which children are asked to copy and fill in the blanks. Try writing these sentences alternately with white and yellow chalk. This makes it much easier for the child to keep his place as he reads and copies.

ABRAHAM LINCOLN'S PROBLEMS

Here is a selection of problems taken from an arithmetic text in use in Lincoln's day (*Common School Arithmetic,* James Eaton, Taggard and Thompson, Boston, 1863). Perhaps these were the very kind of problems that Abe enjoyed solving in the long winter evenings by the light of the fireplace in his log cabin home. Let your youngsters try them as puzzles.

1. The salary of the President of the United States is $25,000 per annum; what sum may he expend daily, and yet save $41,560 in one term of office, viz. 4 years? Ans. $40.

2. What number, multiplied by ½ of itself, will produce 12½. Ans. 5.

3. Suppose that in a shower, the rain falls to the depth of 2 inches; how many gallons will fall upon a township that is 6 miles square, each gallon containing 231 cubic inches?

4. A ladder 41 feet long will reach a window 40 feet high on one side of the street, and, without moving the foot, it will reach a window 9 feet high on the other side; how wide is the street? Ans. 49 feet.

5. How shall I mark gloves that cost me 80c per pair so that I may discount 33 1/3 per cent from the marked price and yet gain 25 per cent on the cost? Ans. $1.50.

6. A hare has 45 rods the start of a hound, but the hound runs 12 rods while the hare runs 9; how many rods will the hare run before the hound overtakes him?

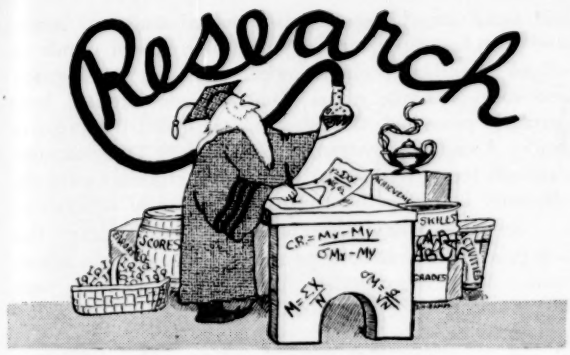
7. Seven ninths of 72 are 4/5 of how many times 7? Ans. 10.

8. Bought a pair of oxen and a horse for $175, and a wagon for 3/5 of the price of the horse. The horse cost ¾ as much as the oxen; what was the price of the wagon? Ans. $45.

9. If a man can cradle 18 acres of wheat in 9 days, how many acres will he cradle in 5 days?

10. A boy being asked how many lambs he had, replied that if he had twice as many more, ½ as many more and 5½ lambs, he should have 30; how many lambs has he?

It is so a nice word! My father says it all the time.



TO PROMOTE OR NOT TO PROMOTE

The question of whether or not to promote the pupil whose scholastic performance is not up to grade level is one that vexes all teachers many times. Assuming for the moment that the only factor affecting a teacher's judgment is the scholastic achievement of the pupil, a decision to retain a student in grade rests upon the belief that he will achieve more, work harder or do both by repeating the grade than he would if promoted. This month's research report attempts to summarize both early and recent studies which provide the answers to the assumption that failure stimulates increased motivation and greater achievement.

In spite of the fact that we know all children are different from each other, not only in their aptitude for a given subject but also in their interests, motivation, personalities, etc., we would wish them to be alike—all bright, all eager, all amiable. Teaching would be so much simpler if this were true. Non-promotion is a procedure which might be expected to increase homogeneity in classes by reducing the range of abilities, and at the same time achieve the early educational goal of having all pupils come up to set standards. The difficulty in attaining these set standards is recognized in the variety of procedures that have been adopted to this end: semi-annual promotions, remedial teaching, departmentalized instruction, multiple-level grouping within grade, and individualized instruction. Non-promotion is another such procedure, although usually a last-ditch procedure because not only does it imply personal failure to the teacher, but, as well, that she must be burdened with the same task another year.

The summaries of studies on non-promotion written by Goodlad[3] and by Heffernan[4] during the past year simplified the task of preparing this review.

Extent of Non-Promotion

One of the early studies by Caswell[2] dealt with the incidence of non-promotion in different states and cities, which showed a range from approximately 3% to 17% in the proportion of students who had been retained in the elementary schools. State-wide and city-wide averages concealed marked variations, however, for a school to school comparison within cities showed that the proportion of non-promotion children in the elementary schools of several cities varied from 0% to 35% in the schools within the community. In New York City, for instance, the proportion of non-promoted students in each of 561 elementary schools ranged from 3% to 35%, in Trenton from 0-24%, in Santa Monica from 3-33% (during 1933). A greater amount of non-promotion occurred at first grade level. It is not surprising to find that more boys than girls are retained at every grade level, but perhaps it is surprising that girls were being promoted whose intellectual capacity and educational achievement was no greater than that of boys being retained. This suggests that behavioral factors other than scholastic achievement may be influential in determining who is not promoted.

Reasons for Non-Promotion

Saunders[9] investigated the causes of non-promotion; that is, the reasons given in support of non-promotion in specific cases. Insufficient scholastic achievement, inadequate mentality, poor attendance, poor health, lack of emotional stability, out-of-school causes, and inappropriate administrative practices were the primary causes given for non-promotion. It should be noted that several of these reasons are beyond the reach of the school. The reasons listed by Saunders in 1941 do not differ too much from reasons listed by the Superintendent of Schools of New York City in his 1910 report, in which the reasons for non-promotion were: irregular attendance, truancy, late entrances to school, ignorance of the English language, transfer from school to school, excessive size of classes, varying standards of rating pupils, inefficient teaching, improper methods of promotion. If anything, the 1910 report is notable in reporting certain aspects of operations of the school which contribute to failure. While it is safe to assume that a smaller, and generally more capable, proportion of students were enrolled in public schools in 1910 than in 1940 and that a greater proportion of failure may have resulted from inadequacies in instruction, it cannot be assumed that all pupil failures in our schools today are the result of inadequacies of the pupils. Anyone cognizant of the variability in the standards used by different teachers today in rating pupils could scarcely agree that all pupils retained are really failing.

Caswell came to the following conclusions in his study: Non-promotion is not likely to assure mastery of subject matter, it does not reduce the range of abilities present in a class, it produces more disciplinary problems and tends to intensify emotional instability. Moreover, he concludes that low mentality, insufficient attendance, imperfect health, or lack of emotional instability are not valid reasons for non-promotion, for the latter in no way remedies the cause of failure. Non-promotion tends to kill incentive to learn, resulting in decreased achievement, while having undesirable effects on personality.

Non-Promotion and Academic Achievement

These conclusions have been verified in a number of other studies, some old, some new, which show that those who repeat a grade accomplish no more and usually less than those of like ability who are promoted. Forty years ago an early study by Keyes[3] reported that 21% of a large group of repeaters did better after repeating a grade than before, but nearly twice as many, 39%, did worse. Arthur, Klene and Bronson[3] in some what similar studies in which non-promoted groups were matched with promoted groups on the basis of chronological age, mental age, and sex found that non-promoted students did not show greater gains as a result of non-promotion. If anything

the greater gains were made by the promoted students. Arthur points out that it is the elimination of the cause of failure if possible, rather than the mere experience of repeating a grade, that is the potent factor in determining subsequent achievement.

A recent study of the effect of retardation on pupils is Meussen's[5] which is concerned with seventh and eighth grade pupils rather than elementary pupils, the subject of most of the preceding studies. Meussen questioned whether the assumption "held water" that students retained in a grade because of academic failure showed improvement as a result of their second exposure. He reviewed the records of all seventh and eighth grade students in the major schools in Allegan County, Michigan, who had been retained to determine whether or not their marks showed improvement. Meussen found that students were retained in a grade if they received marks of D or F in two or more subjects. In comparing the "second-time" marks in the courses in which the students had previously failed, four out of five were still not receiving passing grades. This was true of all subjects—English, science, mathematics, geography and history. The more startling finding dealt with the marks pupils received in the subject fields they had passed satisfactorily the first time, but had to repeat because they had been "kept behind" in other subjects. Half of the students showed no gain, a quarter improved, while a quarter of the students received lower grades. These findings add to the evidence that non-promotion does not contribute to greater achievement, but is as likely to have detrimental effects, including phases of work in which previous performance was adequate. Meussen's study, while leaving the variability in teacher ratings uncontrolled—drops in grades during the repeated year may reflect teacher reaction to "poorer attitudes" on the part of students—nevertheless confirms Caswell's conclusion that non-promotion is an admission of inefficient teaching, poor administrative practices, or poor educational planning. The justification of having students repeat not only the subjects they failed in, but also the subjects in which they were succeeding may well be questioned.

Non-Promotion and Personal-Social Adjustment

The preceding studies have been concerned primarily with scholastic achievement of non-promoted pupils. The conclusions do not justify non-promotion as an educational practice which produces better academic achievement. There are additional data supporting this conclusion derived from studies pertaining to the personal and social adjustment of non-promoted students. Anfinson[1] matched 116 pairs of junior high school pupils on school attendance, chronological age, sex, intelligence, and socio-economic status. One of each pair had been regularly promoted, the other had repeated the previous grade. Using the Symonds-Block Student Questionnaire, Anfinson found the regularly promoted students were significantly better in their social and personal adjustment.

Sandin's[8] study confirmed Anfinson's findings that non-promotion enhances personal and social maladjustment. Using rating scales, check lists, sociometric tests, observations, and interviews, Sandin found that non-promoted children tend to be isolates in the new class, choose companions from grades higher than their own, and develop an increasingly negative attitude towards school, with some 40% wishing to quit school compared with 15% of regularly promoted pupils. Sandin found that teachers, although believing the opposite, are more critical of the non-promoted students and do more moralizing with them. A higher incidence of behavior symptomatic of maladjustment occurred among the non-promoted pupils, such as hostility, apathy, nail biting, thumb sucking, etc. It is safe to say that teachers experience more troublesome behavior from failing students than successful students. This can be as true of regularly promoted slow-progress students in classes where all students are expected to be at grade level as it is of non-promoted students. In the latter instance the mutually negative attitudes of teacher and pupil are more sharply crystallized, the isolation of the non-promoted pupil in the new class and the loss of compensating satisfaction of companionship of ones age mates increases the difficulty.

Goodlad[3] in a study of personal adjustment of non-promoted students at first and second grade level agreed with the preceding authors that undesirable growth characteristics and unsatisfactory school progress was more closely related to non-promoted than promoted slow learners. However, he found that at the first grade level the non-promoted pupils did not tend to be isolated as Sandin found true at upper elementary levels. Perhaps the concept of status or lack of it that is associated with scholastic performance is not as well established in first graders as in the upper grades.

Parent Attitudes

A somewhat different study was recently completed by Russell and others[7] in an investigation of the relationship between non-promotion and attitudes of parents and children. Approximately 2000 pupils from rural and urban California schools were questioned, and 1200 parents. Approximately one-third of the children were non-promoted. In general, the parents expressed a favorable attitude towards school and teachers. This was also true of their children. Furthermore, a high percentage of both groups thought that the teachers understood and helped the children. As might be anticipated, however, the non-promoted children and their parents expressed a higher proportion of critical opinions, although the opinions were directed towards the school rather than towards teachers. The negative feelings engendered by non-promotion appear to be generalized in relation to the school rather than directed towards teachers. This assumes, of course, that the replies on the attitude-opinion questionnaires are

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The
New England Teachers' Agency, Inc.

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PORTLAND, MAINE

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Member, Nat. Association of Teachers Agencies

COMMENTS AND NEWS

At the recent annual meeting of the Southern Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools in Memphis, Tennessee, representatives of elementary education participated in the program and other activities of the Association on an equal basis with representatives of secondary and higher education. This is considered as a real step forward in the proper recognition of this important unit in their educational system. It has been taken as an indication of the progress being made in elementary education in the South. It might be added that the opportunities given to discuss common problems affecting all levels of education are not commonly found in regional educational associations.

In an article in the St. Louis *Post Dispatch*, Arthur H. Compton, retiring Chancellor of Washington University, Nobel Prize winner and chairman of the St. Louis Educational Television Commission writes, "Children have great curiosity and great urges to experiment. These feelings are stifled by television shows in which the children can take part only by some kind of day dreams. We want a television program which gives children the experience of doing things, or making things with their hands, of coloring and shaping and glueing and organizing. We would like to see a program which invites children to go outside and explore their back yards, so they can discover for themselves about plants and animals and rocks. Such a program for preschool children is on the air now on a commercial station in Chicago."

Of timely importance in this month of February which marks the anniversary of Washington's birthday is the publication of a significant book for young people—"When Washington Traveled" by Marion F. Lansing (Doubleday and Company, Inc.). Sometimes there is the implication in the use of a word like "significant" by an adult in describing a book for younger readers that here is something "good for you," and construed by the young reader to mean that "I probably won't like it." However, we believe we can say of "When Washington Traveled," it will be welcomed and liked by both adults and young people.

Marion Lansing knows how to write for young people. She chooses colorful incidents, tells her stories in a vocabularly that can be understood by them yet at the same time adds new words whose meanings are made clear through their contextual use, and develops a total picture that makes the reader feel as though he could say "I was there and that's the way it happened."

On the whole our junior high school age youngsters know pretty well the story of Washington in the French and Indian Wars, as commander-in-chief of our Revolutionary War forces, and the journey from Mount Vernon to New York for the first inauguration. But, have they heard about his long sea voyage to Barbados, his adventures in the wilderness long before the time of Daniel Boone, and his canoe trip down the Ohio? Even his short trips to see a boat that went upstream under its own power, to witness the first successful voyage by balloon in America, and to determine by personal inspection of the land just where the city of Washington was to be built, are all incidents

that give reality to the long ago. Though cities were smaller, crowds were less, and transportation quite different, plans for travel by a President of the United States had to be carefully made even in Washington's time.

Whether or not you teach classes which might well read with pleasure "When Washington Traveled," read it for your own pleasure, information, and understanding.

Sentences excerpted from teachers' journals from countries all over the world show similarities in problems and educational thought. The ideas expressed in many of them might well have found expression in our own educational columns. Here are some of them:

Australia. A grave crisis exists in education in Australia through a lack of adequate school accommodations and facilities.

Belgium. The public school teachers always have rejected the idea of "going on strike," and the ones who have decided to strike, whether for one or twenty-four hours, have done so reluctantly. Like the authorities, they are aware of the seriousness of the situation.

Ceylon. The modern method of teaching backed by library work by children will hereafter be possible only if we produce books of all grades and on all kinds of topics in Tamil and Sinhalese. This means that national teachers' organizations and other citizens with a flair to write and illustrate books should work together and concentrate during the next few years on the production of books.

Denmark. The shortage of teachers in elementary schools was discussed. A temporary solution was to appoint normal school students to teaching positions for three-month periods and arrange for regular teachers to work overtime with pay.

England. A married schoolmaster who is approaching 65 is likely to find himself faced with severe competition when he seeks a small house in which to spend the years of his retirement. His savings will be too small to enable him to make an outright purchase.

Greece. Salaries, allowances and other benefits are the subjects of an article by the vice-president of the teachers federation, who points out the low salaries of teachers, compared with the pay scale for other government employees, and asks the government for a salary reform to eliminate inequalities.

India. We know that our hope of having free and compulsory primary education within ten years of independence is beyond our reach.

New Zealand. Mention of team work leads me to comment briefly on relationships between various sections of the teaching service. I have noted with great satisfaction the progress of more liaison between primary and post-primary teachers.

Philippines. We have considered politics as an area into which teachers' organizations should tread with considerable trepidation, because teachers' participation in politics must necessarily involve the teachers and the schools in partisanship that is inimical to the interest of good education.

Scotland. Close on a thousand uncertified teachers are employed and our one-time ideal of a graduate profession seems further away than ever. What amazes most of us is the seeming apathy and indifference of the parents and one wonders what their reaction would be if an unqualified doctor or dentist were treating their children.

Switzerland. The need for workshops where our ideas would be developed and clarified on the aims, values and methods of our teaching, where we would be encouraged to further our work, is felt everywhere, I think. But isn't it in each of our schools, in each of our cities, that such working communities should first be created? There certain conditions for effective work are present: acquaintance with one's colleagues, opportunity for cooperative work continued and repeated at certain intervals, regular exchange of ideas and experiences.

RESEARCH

(Continued from page 156)

valid. It may be that parents feel safer in a generalized reply than in making specific criticisms of teachers. So not only does non-promotion generally fail to accomplish its objective of improved scholastic performance, it produces less favorable personal and social adjustment, and at the same time creates a less favorable attitude towards the school among the parents of non-promoted children.

Summary

There is unanimity of opinion that non-promotion is an ineffective school policy for meeting the problem of what to do for children who are slow-learners. Non-promotion of itself does nothing to analyze the causes of failure anl plan a remedial course of action. Students who are non-promoted as a group achieve less than if they had been promoted. Worse, they show a higher incidence of maladjustment after non-promotion than before. Not only does their scholastic performance decelerate, but their motivation and personal-social adjustment is less favorable. This is not to imply that a blanket promotional policy is the alternate, but, rather, recognizing the limited justification for non-promotion a teacher should adopt a broad factual basis in making such decisions, attempting to analyze as well as she is able the casual factors of the slow progress and determine to what extent non-promotion can be expected to modify any of the casual factors. Simultaneously, the teacher should be considering scholastic performance in the broadcast sense rather than in a particular area, and, more, not only scholastic performance, but other equally important aspects of child development. (Mallison Western Michigan College; Weston, Boston University).

[1] Anfinson, R. D., *School Progress and Pupil Adjustment,* ELEM. SCH. J., 1941, 40, 507-514.

[2] Caswell, H. L., *Non-promotion in Elementary Schools,* George Peabody College for Teachers, Nashville, Tenn., 1933.

[3] Goodlad, John, *Research and Theory Regarding Promotion and Non-promotion,* ELEM. SCH. J., 1952, 53, 150-155.

[4] Heffernan, Helen and others, *What Research Says About Non-promotion,* CALIFORNIA JOURNAL OF ELEM. EDUC., 1952, 21, 7-24.

[5] Meussen, E. J., *A Determination of the Effect of Retardation on Students,* University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, Michigan, 1952.

[6] Rose, N. M., *Promotion and Failure as Affected by Sex,* University of Kansas, Lawrence, Kans., 1928.

[7] Russell, D. H., *The Influence of Repetition of a Grade and of Regular Promotion on the Attitudes of Parents and Children Toward School,* CALIFORNIA JOURNAL OF ELEM. EDUC., 1952, 21, 29-41.

[8] Sandin, A. A., *Social and Emotional Adjustments of Regularly Promoted and Non-Promoted Pupils,* Teachers College, Columbia, N. Y., 1944.

[9] Saunders, C. M., *Promotion or Failure for the Elementary School Pupil,* Teachers College, Columbia, N. Y., 1941.

NEW BOOKS

HUMAN RELATIONS

There is an ever-increasing need for all persons dealing with other people to study and investigate the strains and satisfactions that guide and influence the everyday life of individuals or groups throughout the world, nation and community. The reviews that follow indicate the value of two references in the field of human relations.

It is not very often that man reaches the ninth decade and keeps physically and emotionally fit and mentally alert. Professor Emeritus of English Composition and Group Leadership at Wellesley College (1911-1940) Alfred D. Sheffield is just such an individual, for he is as astute and productive today as he was in the fourth, fifth, and sixth decades of his life.

It is comprehensible that his book THE MIND OF A MEMBER[1] is full of intergroup understandings for Professor Sheffield is the son of the late Reverend Devello Sheffield whose life was dedicated to ministerial missionary work in China—in fact, Professor Sheffield was born on December 17, 1878 at Tungshon, near Peking, China and spent most of his youth there. His academic education was obtained in this country where he earned his A.B. from Oberlin in 1895, and after earning an A.M. from Harvard in 1897, he set out on a teaching career, which he pursues to this day.

Shortly after teaching at the University School, Cleveland, he was revision editor of WEBSTER'S NEW INTERNATIONAL DICTIONARY, 1903-1909. This was followed by a teaching post in Wellesley College in 1911 to 1940 when he retired.

Dr. Sheffield was ever interested in trade unions and the problems inherent in group membership, and between 1919 and 1925 he taught classes of trade unionists in the practice of directed discussion. So vivid and vital were his teachings that among his students were several who became outstanding leaders including the present Director of Organization of the American Federation of Labor.

His work in Group Discussion had wide-spread influence. From 1923 to 1928 he was on leave from Wellesley as an associate secretary of the industrial commission of the Inquiry, New York organization for the development of education techniques for dealing with controversial issues. His work there was to further better relations between A. Nash Co. and the Amalgamated Clothing Workers leading to constructive labor relations. He worked also with the Personnel Division of American Telephone and Telegraph Company. His syllabus on THE BETTER HANDLING OF CONFERENCES, which was the result of his work with the American Telephone and Telegraph Company, is used in the training of District Chairmen of Joint Conference Committees under the company's Employee Representation Plan.

He is a well-known author and careful writer whose works will live not only in the field of English but also in that of Group Leadership. Among his publications are GRAMMAR AND THINKING (1912), JOINING IN PUBLIC DISCUSSION (1921), CREATIVE DISCUSSION (1925), TRAINING FOR GROUP EXPERIENCE (1928), COMMAND OF SENTENCE PATTERNS (1928), and the REVISED AND ENLARGED EDITION OF SOULE'S SYNONYMS; and numerous articles in such erudite periodicals as GENERAL SEMANTICS, COLLEGE ENGLISH, NEW ENGLAND TEACHERS LEAFLET and sundry labor periodicals.

Professor Sheffield is as mentally vigorous today as before he retired from active teaching in 1940. At present he is treasurer in Industrial Relations Association and consultant on labor problems. His work includes that of instructor in a course sponsored by the government for foremen in industries essential to national defense as well as arbitrator in labor issues.

Certain chapters in THE MIND OF A MEMBER were written by Dr. Sheffield's wife—Ada Eliot Sheffield —sister of T. S. Eliot and niece of the late president of Harvard. Mrs. Sheffield was well equipped to write those chapters since she had wide experience as a social worker. She began her social worker's career as district secretary of the Family Welfare Society of Boston, and held such important positions as probation officer, New York City, and Director of Research Bureau on Social Case Work, Boston,—contacts which qualified her so aptly for her contributions to THE MIND OF A MEMBER.

She is a recognized author in the field of social work. Some of her best known works are THE SOCIAL CASE HISTORY, CASE STUDY POSSIBILITIES, and SOCIAL INSIGHT IN CASE SITUATIONS. Upon her death in 1944 she left notes and manuscripts which her husband, Dr. Sheffield, serviced (in Chapters IV and V of THE MIND OF A MEMBER) in the light of progressive steps in fields of social work.

THE MIND OF A MEMBER is an unusual book; "unusual", for the authors address their ideas to individuals who work with groups as well as to members of the family. Today we realize more and more that that which unites people must be considered from the aspect of the whole personality, and that conflicts between individuals are generally based on tensions within work and living conditions as well as social conditions and aspirations. The writers feel that tensions between groups are caused by conflicts of interest which bring about complexities of insight. The co-authors believe these conflicts may be obliterated if a "grass roots" approach is taken by work groups of evaluating "good" and the "NOT good" for the group. Both the authors feel, rightly or wrongly, that our expensive educational system sends young people into adult life for the most part unable to cope with their responsibilities.

Some chapters give an intimate view of factory and family situations which afford an insight into social meanings of "role relationships." The analysis of group functioning transforms "autocratic" management into "democratic" problem solving which results in the maturing of individuals while they resolve the problem.

[1] *The Mind of a Member, New Bearings for Service to Home and Work Relations.* A. D. Sheffield and A. E. Sheffield. New York: Exposition Press, Inc. 1951. $4.00.

These chapters are especially valuable not only to teachers who find within their classrooms badly adjusted children, but also to parents. The author's clear and concise analysis of the causes of maladjustment should be extremely helpful to teachers in suggestive aids for maintaining wholesome teacher-pupil relations. It furthermore should aid parents in parent-child relationships since living and work conditions are basic to understanding of conflicts between individuals.

Chapter IV, "The Family As Seedbed for Social Learning," offers much to teachers and parents alike in that it traces the inherent changes in patterns of family living, beginning with that of marriage, young parents and babies, the home circle, and continuing to elders and youth. It explains some family problems due not only to certain tensions in culture but also to inadequate economic situations and lack of parental controls, and suggests new approaches of family agencies some of which might well be transferred to teaching situations.

There are twenty-three case studies to illustrate the social implications of the "role relationships." Some situations in work experience show the difference in the relationships. These take the place of individuals covering up the delinquencies of their work mates, as well as failure to comprehend the "authoritarian" decision of a "Company Policy." There are also case experiences dealing with family situations. These help link the work experience with the family activities.

Furthermore, the case studies in Chapter V, "Family Problems Approach through 'Situational' Participants" are so well structured that they may well be analyzed in classrooms which concern themselves with realistic sociological insights or even with discussions in guidance courses. They may be broken down into symptoms of strain, whether they are "culturally induced" or have their roots in economic strangulation of social and job prestige or jealousy. Likewise, the causes so deduced might lead to a discussion as to the desirability, and the amount and nature of union counselling to the family concerned. The case material is so valuable that the reader suggests that academic users of case material might well afford to "re-inspect" for educational discussion the case materials now in use and select those that would lead to the quality of thought and effort most valuable to the age level of the discussants.

This book cannot be skimmed or read lightly. It is a "gold-mine" of psychologically sound insights into behavior problems of individuals as well as those of the group. Not only to individuals in the field of sociology and human relations should this book be a MUST, but to all persons dealing with other people, whether individually or in groups, in the home, in school, in church, in community or in industry.

"They Learn What They Live"[2] is an accounting of the experiences in the Philadelphia Early Childhood Project. The project was made possible through the cooperation of the Philadelphia Public Schools, the Bureau for Intercultural Education, the Research Center for Group Dynamics and the Philadelphia Fellowship Commission. It was inspired by the late Dr. Kurt Lewin who was formerly Director of the Research Center for Group Dynamics, Massachusetts Institute of Technology.

This book is divided into five parts. Part I, describes the participating teachers and the schools; analyzes leadership and administrative responsibilities; relates the process and evaluates the teacher education program.

Part II is not only a descriptive record and detailed findings of young children's social attitudes, social perceptions of religious and racial groups, but also presents findings of the relationship of some of the personal and environmental factors to these social attitudes and perceptions.

In Part III, "The Role of the Parents in the Formation of Children's Attitudes" is clearly ascertained by such methods as The Interview. It is important to note the following findings: one, parents give little evidence of teaching their children about cultural differences and evince *no* responsibility for instilling in them attitudes and values of good human relations. This is so because they not only lack basic knowledge concerning religious and racial groups but also because their personal *feelings* and emotions interefere with their teaching. Unfortunately, parents attitudes toward groups control their children's attitudes and relationships at home, and in the neighborhood.

The experiments in changing attitudes and behavior of the children and teachers is related in Part IV. This experiment clearly indicates that 1) *democratic attitudes can be taught to young children, even as prejudiced attitudes are taught;* 2) curricula content and their resultant values are sources for learning desirable and undesirable attitudes.

A summarization of the Project findings and the implications of these findings for the school are discussed in Part V. This is an exciting and thrilling story for it not only awakes and encourages the reader to action but also helps him to a better understanding of how to elicit the cooperative action of parents, community workers and all agencies and persons charged with the responsibility of bettering human relations as well as some of the techniques applicable in developing desirable changes in attitudes together with building wholesome appreciations of differences in culture, color and creed. As such it should be a "must" volume to be read and reread by those who influence children in and out of school. (Miriam Kallen, State Teachers College, Boston)

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[2] *They Learn What They Live, Prejudice in Young Children.* Helen G. Trager and Marian R. Yarrow. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1952.

AMONG our articles for March are the following two which should appeal to many of our subscribers:

"Cooperating With The Speech Correctionist"—Ernest Fossum discusses speech problems and their understanding—and the relationship between teacher and speech correctionist.

"How An All-School Exhibit Helps Public Relations"—the value to pupils, parents, and teachers from such exhibits and the community interest stimulated by these exhibits is related by M. L. Knapp.

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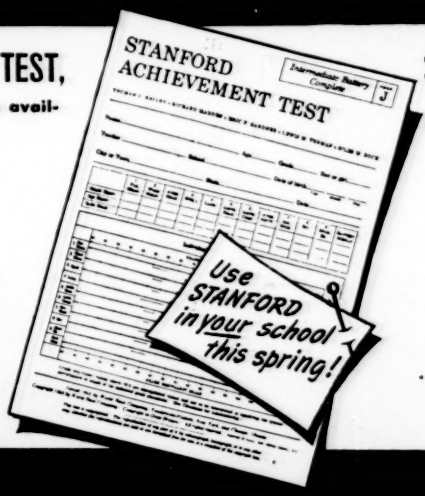

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